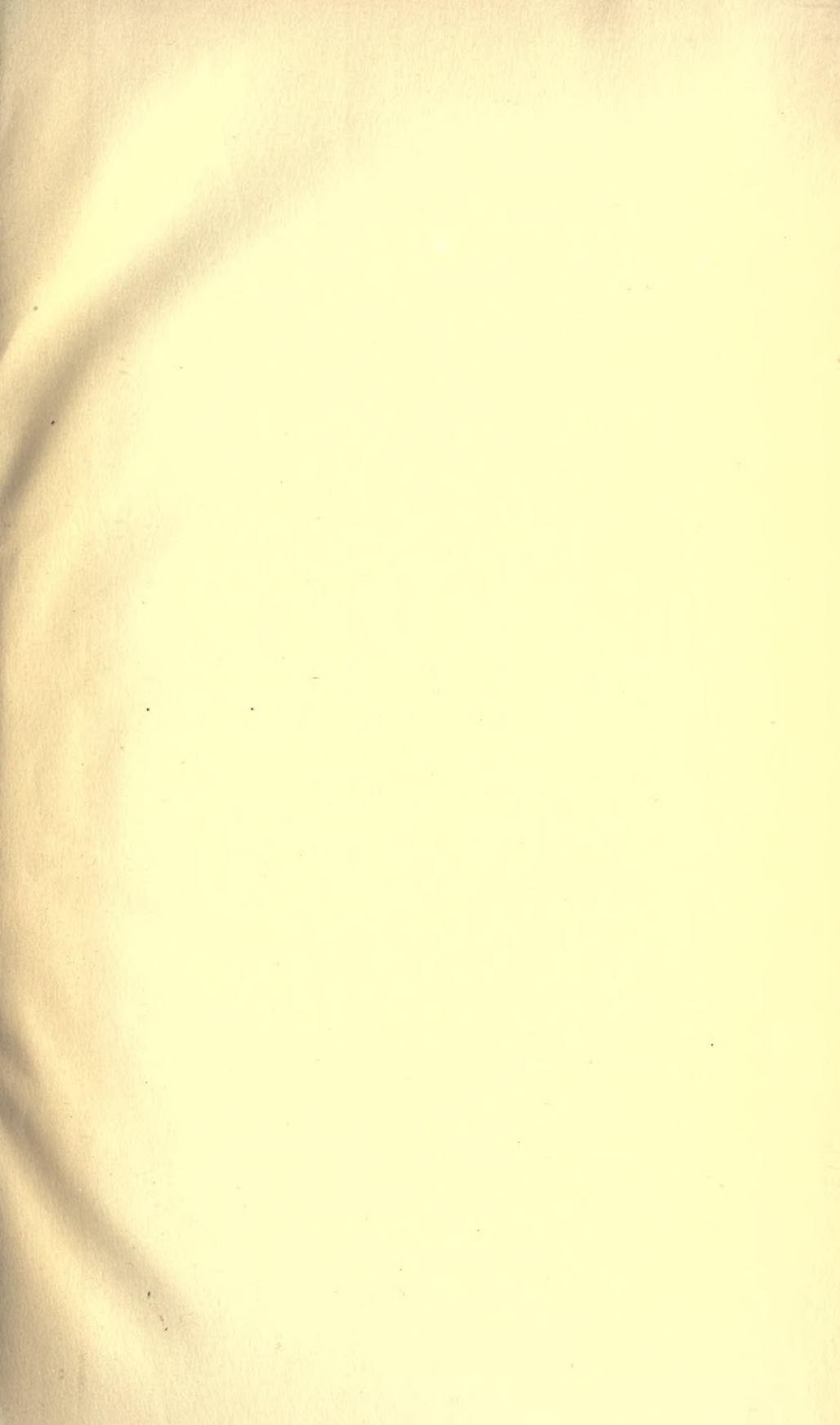


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THE EMPIRE

REVIEW

AND

JOURNAL OF BRITISH TRADE

EDITED BY

SIR CLEMENT KINLOCH-COOKE

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
THE WAR AND THE PRIMARY INDUSTRIES OF AUSTRALIA.	
By F. A. W. GISBORNE	1
SIR EDWARD HOLDEN ON EXCHANGES	15
THE GOVERNMENT AND THE COUNTRY. By A. E. DUCHESNE	21
STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN SOUTH AFRICA. By D. A. E.	
VEAL	32
THE FEDERATION OF THE EMPIRE. By GRANVILLE C. CUNING-	
HAM	41, 72
OVERSEA NOTES. By OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS 46, 85, 137, 182, 235,	
282, 329, 378, 421, 471, 518, 567	
PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW. By D. A. E. VEAL	
(i) IMPERIAL CREDIT FOR IMPERIAL NEEDS	49
(ii) FACTS IGNORED BY FREE TRADERS	52
AT THE CROSS WAYS. By A. E. DUCHESNE	58
MIGRATION WITHIN THE EMPIRE. By THE EDITOR	64
THE BANKING BAROMETER—SET FAIR. By W. E. C. CROZIER	68
BRITISH INDUSTRIES AND HOW TO EXTEND THEM. By	
E. C. ABBOTT	79, 228, 323, 375, 415
THE VOICE OF EMPIRE. MR. HUGHES AND HIS SPEECHES.	
By THE EDITOR	97
(i) THE WAR: BEFORE AND AFTER	101
(ii) WANTED: AN EMPIRE POLICY	107
(iii) ONE PEOPLE—ONE DESTINY	112
(iv) ORGANISATION: AN IMPERIAL NECESSITY	117
(v) THE POWER OF ORGANISATION	145
(vi) RESPONSIBILITIES OF EMPIRE	150
GERMAN METHODS AND GERMAN INFLUENCE. THE COM-	
MERCIAL ASPECT. By A. E. DUCHESNE	122
A MEMORY OF JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN. By D. A. E. VEAL ..	130
AFTER THE WAR. By Lady KINLOCH-COOKE	134
THE COMMERCIAL WAR. OUR NATIONAL TASK. By A. E. DUCHESNE	
154, 205, 271, 311, 346	
BRITISH TRADE POLICY AFTER THE WAR. By H. DOUGLAS	
GREGORY	163
THE DOMINIONS AND IMPERIAL PREFERENCE. STORY OF	
THE MOVEMENT. By D. A. E. VEAL	171
CANADA AND THE CANADIANS. By HAROLD HAMILTON	177

Contents

iii

	PAGE
WHO WILL FINANCE THE RAND? By W. P. TAYLOR	180
AUSTRALIA AND CONSCRIPTION. By F. A. W. GISBORNE ..	198
SHAKESPEARE'S PATRIOTISM. By D. A. E. VEAL	213
TRADE AFTER THE WAR. By E. R. BARTLEY DENNIS, M.P. ..	217
WHALE HUNTING IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC. By FORD FAIRFORD	222
THE RAND SHOW AND SETTLEMENT. A SOLUTION OF TWO PROBLEMS. W. P. TAYLOR	225
HOW TO CAPTURE FOREIGN TRADE. By W. W. HARDWICKE, M.D.	232
MEMORIES OF LORD KITCHENER.	
(i) AS I KNEW HIM. By the LORD DESBOROUGH, K.C.V.O. ..	241
(ii) AS A SOLDIER. By FIELD-MARSHAL LORD FRENCH, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., G.C.M.G.	246
(iii) AS A FRIEND. By the EARL OF DERBY, K.G., G.C.V.O. ..	247
(iv) HIS WORK IN AUSTRALIA. By F. A. W. GISBORNE	249
CHANGING THE FABRIC. By THE EDITOR	
(i) MR. HUGHES AND HIS SPEECHES	256
(ii) A COUNCIL OF EMPIRE	257
TRADE AFTER THE WAR. By EDWARD R. DAVSON	262
SEAL HUNTING IN NEWFOUNDLAND. By FORD FAIRFORD ..	267
EDUCATION AS A PREPARATION FOR FUTURE WORK. By ETHEL STRUDWICK, M.A. (<i>Head Mistress, City of London School for Girls</i>)	277
THE WAR AND THE EMPIRE. By ALBERT CLAYTON PALMER, M.P. (<i>Commonwealth Parliament</i>)	289
CONDITIONS OF BUSH LIFE IN AUSTRALIA. A SQUATTER'S ADVICE TO EMIGRANTS. By CHARLES A. G. LILLINGSTON	292, 352, 403
THE UNION JACK CLUB. AN EMPIRE MEMORIAL. By THE EDITOR	298
GREAT BRITAIN'S PRE-WAR TRADE WITH CANADA. By FORD FAIRFORD	302
ON THE WESTERN FRONT. By AN OFFICER	308
TWO BLOCKADES. By KATHARINE F. DOUGHTY	317
NATIONAL EDUCATION. By H. DOUGLAS GREGORY	337
THE DUNLOP RUBBER COMPANY	359
THE ROMANCE OF LOGWOOD. By T. H. MACDERMOT	364
THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF 'SHIRLEY.' By D. A. E. VEAL	371
THE COMMONWEALTH CONSTITUTION OF AUSTRALIA. By the Hon. P. M'M GLYNN, K.C., M.P. (<i>Commonwealth Parliament</i>)	385
CANADA'S JUVENILE IMMIGRATION. By G. BOGUE SMART (<i>Chief Inspector of British Immigrant Children and Receiving Homes</i>)	393
BEATTY'S BATTLE: A POEM. By GEORGE BIDDER	397
THE WEST INDIAN SUGAR INDUSTRY. By D. A. E. VEAL ..	398
EUROPEAN HISTORY AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM. By M. M. BERRYMAN, M.A. (<i>Head Mistress of Notting Hill High School for Girls</i>)	410

	PAGE
COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY AFTER THE WAR. JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMPETITION. By J. P. DONOVAN (<i>late Postal Commissioner, Chinese Postal Service</i>)	433
THE COMING IMPERIAL CONSTITUTION. PLEA FOR A NOMINATED CONVENTION. By F. A. W. GISBORNE	447
WHERE TO SPEND THE WINTER. By TRAVELLER	456
THE AWAKENING OF MODERN BRITISH IMPERIALISM. By D. A. E. VEAL	461
WINTER AND THE HERB INDUSTRY. By ADA B. TEETGEN	465
FINANCIAL FACILITIES AND BRITISH TRADE. By THE EDITOR	481
THE EMPIRE OUTSIDE THE NARROW SEAS. By the Hon. P. McM. GLYNN, K.C., M.P. (<i>Commonwealth Parliament of Australia</i>)	490
PEACE? THE EMPIRE'S ANSWER. A POEM. By C. A. H.	495
CHURCH AND STATE I, II. A NONCONFORMIST STANDPOINT By H. DOUGLAS GREGORY	496, 554
DECLINE OF GERMAN COMMERCIAL DOMINANCE IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY. By D. A. E. VEAL	504
ZULULAND SUGAR. By W. P. TAYLOR	509
NAMELESS HEROES. A POEM. By ALFRED SMYTHE	511
WAR ITEMS FROM OVERSEA	526
EMPIRE RECONSTRUCTION AFTER THE WAR. SOME NOTES AND SUGGESTIONS.	
(i) By the Rt. Hon. Sir JOSEPH G. WARD, Bart, M.P., K.C.M.G. LL.D. (<i>late Prime Minister of New Zealand</i>)	530
(ii) By ARTHUR H. W. R. STEEL-MAITLAND, M.P. (<i>Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies</i>)	539
LOCAL WAR MUSEUMS. By C. REGINALD GRUNDY (<i>Editor of "The Connoisseur."</i>)	543
NAVAL AND MILITARY DEFENCE. By CECIL BECK, M.P. (<i>Vice-Chamberlain of H.M. Household</i>)	550
PRESIDENT WILSON'S NOTE. THE CASE FOR THE ALLIES. By NEMESIS	563
A HAPPY NEW YEAR. A POEM. By GEORGE BIDDER	571

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THE WAR AND THE PRIMARY INDUSTRIES OF AUSTRALIA

VOLTAIRE'S sardonic remark originally limited to Prussia has now an almost universal application. War has become for the time the "national industry" of almost every civilised nation on the face of the earth. Not only the arch-disturber of the world's peace, but all the Great Powers of Europe, with their affiliated or dependent communities beyond the seas, are actively engaged in the profitable work of wholesale homicide. The greater portion of a continent is now transformed into a vast volcano, spouting flames and destruction; and the vibrations transmitted from the centre of disturbance are felt in almost every quarter of the habitable world.

Possibly in Greenland, Tibet and Tierra del Fuego there may still be found people who have not yet heard of the culminating struggle between Anglo-Saxon, Latin and Slav on the one side, and Teuton, Bulgar and Turk on the other; but such are few. Even the inhabitants of remote regions like the hunting and trapping grounds of North America, the nitrate fields of Chili, and the centres of the pearl-shelling industry on the coasts of tropical Australia, are feeling the economic effects of the frightful convulsion. Neutral countries, of course, derive compensation for the loss of trade in some directions by increased activities in others. The cessation of a demand for such luxuries as jewelry, motor cars, and fashionable millinery is, in part at least, made up for by an enormously increased demand for all kinds of munitions of war. The United States, by far the most important of the neutral countries, is, perhaps, economically a gainer rather than loser from the present state of things. While frenzied Europe, like the ancient priests of Baal, gashes herself

with knives, tranquil America looks on, and from time to time supplies—not as free gifts—fresh weapons for these ghastly operations. But gain on one side implies loss on the other, and the volume of that loss is already stupendous beyond words.

Philosophical military experts speak of the “wastage” of war. The term, as used by them, refers exclusively to the number of men destroyed by the enemy or by disease, or permanently disabled. How gigantic have been the losses of this kind sustained by the six principal combatants (those of Japan may be regarded as negligible) during the first year of the war is demonstrated by the figures quoted by Mr. Crammond in an article contributed to the *Nineteenth Century and After* last September. From the tables prepared by this competent authority it would seem that within the short space of twelve months over three millions of the flower of Europe’s manhood had been killed in battle, while approximately five and three-quarter millions more had received wounds. Add to these victims the multitudes of non-combatants that perished in Belgium, Poland, Serbia and Armenia, and the total number of the slaughtered in a single year would probably exceed even that recorded by Gibbon as representing the toll of human life sacrificed to the ambition of Ghengis Khan.* So much for the tribute of blood, not yet, alas, paid in full. Now a cursory glance may be bestowed on the material loss that has accompanied this enormous sacrifice of life.

We need not waste time over money calculations. These are profitless and misleading. It is, of course, a mere truism to affirm that the real economic loss entailed by war is to be measured, not by the sums of money expended, for coins and paper are only counters, but by the amount of human energy diverted from constructive to destructive purposes, and the havoc wrought in the machinery for the creation and distribution of wealth. When the skilled worker is transformed into a soldier he ceases to become a wealth producer, and becomes both a destroyer and consumer of wealth. Economically he becomes a source of double loss to the country that employs him.

As to material waste, every day now nitre sufficient to fertilise a thousand fields is being flung back into the atmosphere, and steel enough to make thousands of useful machines and implements is being blown to fragments. Incalculable quantities of coal, timber and other material, also, are being thrown daily into

* In one of his notes to chap. xxxiv. of the ‘Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire’ the famous historian gives 4,347,000 as representing the exact number of the persons slain by the armies of the savage Asiatic Napoleon at the three cities of Maru, Herat, and Neisabour alone. A doubt, however, is not unnaturally expressed as to the accuracy of the Persian record.

The War and the Primary Industries of Australia 3

the devouring furnace of war. When we read of a million shells bursting on a small strip of country in France within three days, and 750,000 projectiles being discharged from German guns alone in the course of a single battle in Russia, we can form some faint idea of the appalling waste of useful material, both raw and manufactured, that attends modern warfare. And all is expended to cause further loss—to the enemy. Factories and towns are crashing down, villages going up in flames, and whole forests are being converted into wreckage by the misuse of natural and artificial forces which, properly applied, would serve a hundred purposes in the useful arts.

In regard to waste of man-power Major E. T. Dillon, D.S.O., some months ago estimated that out of the total population of Germany alone no fewer than 10,250,000 men were either actively engaged in military operations, or were employed in such tasks as those of manufacturing munitions, transporting troops and supplies, and ministering to the multitudinous wants of the armies in the field. Including all persons in the various belligerent countries now engaged in fighting, or in the subsidiary occupations connected with war, and also the multitudes of workers in the munition factories of the United States and Japan, the hosts now in the service of Mars must exceed in number the present population of the United Kingdom. The position briefly is this. Some twenty millions of men are occupied in the task of destroying life and property, and at least as many more, with a considerable number of women besides, are wholly occupied in providing the means for these gruesome occupations. Necessarily in such conditions there are but few countries in the world that enjoy prosperity.

Among neutrals, probably, Argentina is the country that occupies the most advantageous position to-day. She is exclusively a producer of food and the chief raw materials of clothing; and the populations of warring nations must be fed and clothed. Meat, wool, and hides are now in boundless demand. Next to Argentina, among South American States, Brazil is exceptionally favoured. Her coffee, sugar and rubber are greedily absorbed by the European markets still open. Chili, unfortunately, is an exception, for 70 per cent. of her nitrate exports formerly went to Germany, and the latter country, though quite willing to continue to receive them, is temporarily unable to do so. Speaking generally, in time of war two classes of goods are particularly in demand, those necessary to support, and those necessary to destroy human life. The United States can best supply the latter; but the former, after all, are the prime human wants, and countries that can supply them occupy the best economic position. Neither wealth nor manufacturing

pre-eminence counts for much when nations are fighting for their lives. A rich but sparsely-peopled country capable of producing vast quantities of the elemental requirements of life is far better off in these tempestuous days than one crowded with inhabitants, and equipped with all the machinery and appliances necessary to produce an immense variety of manufactured goods. The man washed ashore during a storm in a state of nudity on a fertile island would be in a more enviable situation than a companion in adversity who landed on a bare rock with a large sum of money, a box full of fashionable clothes and a considerable stock of agricultural implements. And so it is, during the present tempest, with nations.

Next to Argentina, the country that produces the largest quantity of foodstuffs and raw material for textile and metal manufactures in proportion to its population is undoubtedly Australia. While the latter yields supremacy to the former in the number of its flocks and herds, and the magnitude of its agricultural industry, in mining it easily takes the first place. Its manufacturing industries, too, are considerably in advance of those of Argentina. But Nature unfortunately treats both countries after the manner of a capricious parent. Conditions oscillate perpetually between scarcity and abundance, prosperity and depression. For Australia the war occurred at a peculiarly unfavourable time. Her pastures and cornfields were languishing under the burning hand of drought. Verdant plains had become desolate wastes, and the impoverishment of the rural dwellers necessarily brought heavy losses on the inhabitants of the towns. In one agricultural district in New South Wales only the pitiful quantity of 6 inches of rain had fallen within the two years previous to the outbreak of war. Sheep and cattle had perished, and were perishing, in multitudes. Figures quoted by the President at the last meeting of the Australian Chamber of Commerce show that during this dreadful and most untimely visitation the losses in sheep in all the States of the Commonwealth, with the important exception of Queensland, were 25,000,000, and of cattle, including the State just mentioned, 2,500,000.

The total yield of wheat declined from 103,000,000 bushels in 1913-14 to only 25,000,000 bushels gathered from a largely increased acreage in the year following. During the same disastrous period the output of butter decreased by no less than 9,000 tons, and nearly half of the dairy herds perished. Altogether the total immediate loss sustained by the primary industries of Australia by reason of the late drought is computed to have reached the large sum of £85,000,000. Additional losses, of no small magnitude, too, will be suffered during the

next few years owing to the depletion of the flocks and herds. Before drought had retired, war sprang on the scene. One grievous trial was thus aggravated by another; and the effects of the latter as so far visible on the great primary industries of the Commonwealth deserve a little attention.

Of these industries, it may be premised, two are greatly dependent on labour, and the third but little. The pastoralist is in the fortunate position of needing the services of only a limited number of employees, save, where sheep are kept in large numbers, during a month or two in the year. A couple of white men with, perhaps, a black stockman or two can easily look after 5,000 head of cattle all the year round. During the shearing season, of course, the sheepowner needs the services of a great many more men than are usually employed, but by the extensive use of machines a great economy of time and labour is now effected. Living on stations is cheap; and though there are plenty of ways in which money can be usefully expended in improving a pastoral property, such as by making tanks and dams for the conservation of water, sinking wells and fencing-in additional areas, during periods when both money and labour are scarce, these works can usually be suspended without any immediate loss of productivity.

Just now, it is hardly necessary to observe, both capital and labour *are* decidedly scarce. Already in round numbers 200,000 Australians have either gone to the front or are being trained for active service. The Prime Minister has just (November 25) announced that arrangements have been made for the despatch within the next few months of an additional 50,000 men, irrespective of the regular monthly reinforcements of 9,500. In all, by next June, the Commonwealth will have supplied for the active defence of the Empire the imposing number of about 300,000 soldiers, a contribution of which all Australians have reason to feel proud. But the drain on the local supplies of labour is very severe. In regard to capital, the Commonwealth's War Expenditure for the present financial year was estimated at slightly below £40,000,000 before the substantial augmentation of the Expeditionary Force just referred to was decided on. In all probability the actual sum expended will be well over £50,000,000. Of this amount the new Federal Income Tax will furnish £4,000,000, and other war taxes a million or two besides, but the bulk will have to be borrowed in Australia.

It were too much to expect Great Britain with her overwhelming obligations and a war bill already exceeding £3,000,000 a day, and officially stated to be likely to approach £5,000,000 ere long, to bestow further pecuniary assistance on any of the Dominions. The present reserves of capital in the Common-

wealth, therefore, will have to be largely utilised for purposes of national defence during the coming year, and very little money will be obtainable from abroad for the development of Australian industries. Bearing in mind the ruling fact that, while immigration for the time has practically ceased, the war has necessitated the emigration of tens of thousands of the able-bodied male population of the country; that vast sums of money are being diverted from productive to non-productive purposes; and that the same causes which are checking the inflow of settlers are also preventing the inflow of money, it will be seen that the less dependent an industry is on capital and labour for its successful prosecution the more favourable must be its economic position. Judged by these tests the pastoral industry in the Commonwealth now enjoys the most advantageous conditions, agriculture comes next, while mining comes a long way behind. This last industry, indeed, has sustained a staggering blow, and so far shows but faint signs of recovery.

The Australian grazier of to-day of all men should be an optimist. Certainly he has lately suffered hard times, but now his prospects are radiant. Countless woollen mills at home and abroad are crying out for unlimited supplies of raw material to convert into khaki and blankets. Hungry, non-vegetarian millions in the field have to be fed, and Australia is the greatest of the world's grazing grounds. The recuperative powers of the country are marvellous. To-day the carcasses of millions of sheep and cattle are scattered over its plains, scorched to nakedness by a merciless sun. To-morrow fresh millions wander over luxuriant pastures. With unprecedentedly high prices for wool, meat and hides now ruling the Australian pastoralist is more to be envied even than a shareholder in Krupp's—and he is likely to prosper longer. Any persons of active habits fortunate enough at the present time to have a little money to invest could hardly do better than select a suitable portion of the vast extent of unoccupied country still available in the Northern Territory and the north of West Australia for cattle-raising. Government freezing works are now being erected at Darwin, and these will greatly facilitate the profitable disposal of stock raised in regions which hitherto have been almost cut off from the world's markets. The projected extension of the great transcontinental railway southwards towards the interior of Australia promises soon to render large areas of country suitable for the production of wool, by providing the necessary conveniences of transport. The Commonwealth's real "national industry," in short, flourishes, and enjoys most inviting prospects.

Concerning the agricultural outlook one cannot speak with quite the same confidence. Conditions as to weather and

production are, indeed, most favourable. A phenomenal yield of wheat is assured. According to the latest official estimates the total crop of the four chief wheat-growing States, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and West Australia will amount to about 150,000,000 bushels. The surplus for export, the Prime Minister has just informed us, will probably be not less than 2,600,000 tons, a quantity about 1,000,000 tons in excess of the largest amount ever before sent away from Australia in a single year. But in this bountiful harvest there is reason to fear the farmer will find an embarrassment of agricultural riches. Three difficulties confront him. Firstly, there is a great shortage of labour, especially in the country districts, which have furnished in proportion to their population a considerably larger number of recruits to the expeditionary forces than the urban areas. Many farmers' sons have gone to the war, and the want of these experienced and reliable helpers will be severely felt. Secondly, owing also to the demand of the war, vessels are scarce, and freights high. As will presently be explained, the Federal Government is making a bold effort to deal with this difficulty. Thirdly—and this is likely to be the worst trouble of all—professional agitators, after their usual fashion, are preparing to take advantage of the farmers' embarrassments by inciting a labour revolt with a view to the extortion of blackmail.

Seventy-two "organisers," as they are humorously termed, have just been sent out by the Australian Workers' Union with instructions to "order" the men employed on the farms in the chief agricultural districts to strike, if the farmers refuse to pay wages at the extortionate rates contained in the Rural Workers' "Log" drawn up a couple of years ago. Strikes in Australia are illegal; nevertheless incendiaries are permitted by the Federal and State Governments openly to preach defiance of the law. Were an employer to adopt such an attitude, it is hardly necessary to say he would at once be prosecuted and heavily fined; trade-union emissaries enjoy the regal privilege of superiority to legislative enactments.* For they know perfectly well that the

* In this connection the information lately given by the Minister of Labour and Industry in the New South Wales Legislative Assembly in reply to a question put to him by Mr. Waddell is interesting. During the year ending the 8th of November last 300 strikes occurred in New South Wales, where, it may be mentioned, strikes are expressly forbidden by law. Of the thousands of men implicated in these disturbances only fifty six were prosecuted. The collective penalties imposed amounted to £2,592, of which sum, however, not a penny was paid, and no attempt seems to have been made to enforce payment. On the other hand, no fewer than 2,909 employers were prosecuted under the Arbitration, Factories, and the Shops and Early Closing Acts. For offences against the first of these measures alone fines were inflicted aggregating £2,013, and £1,987 was paid. These figures convey a fair idea of the impartiality of Labour Governments in administering the industrial laws.

bodies they represent control at the present time at least one Chamber in all the legislatures in the Commonwealth, save that of Victoria. Over the dominant legislative body, the Federal Parliament, their power is absolute. The farmers, then, have little hope of receiving fair-play and protection from illegal attacks at the hands of the Government; and, should the unionists take extreme action, they will have to depend largely on voluntary help. Female labour in any case, probably, will be utilised on an extensive scale; but in the event of an agricultural crisis, large numbers of volunteers will certainly be obtainable from the cities.

It may be hoped that, in view of the certainty of vigorous and, in all probability, successful resistance on the part of the farmers, the leaders of the union, whose authority to represent the majority of genuine rural workers is more than doubtful, will abandon their predatory designs, and abstain from an attack on a great industry at a most critical time. If patriotic considerations have no weight with them, they would do well to remember that on every occasion hitherto when they have come into collision with the Australian farmer, in spite of the furtive assistance given by partisan Governments, they have been signally worsted. Next time these domestic Prussians will perhaps find that the Entente representing all those in Australia who support the principles of freedom and fair play will not be disposed to content itself with half measures.

As before remarked, a wheat crop of quite extraordinary proportions at the present juncture must subject the machinery of transportation both by land and sea to an exceptionally severe strain. Left to themselves, probably, many of the smaller producers would have found it impossible to engage space in the few vessels available for their grain, which consequently would have had to be thrown on a glutted market at home and sold at a loss. Representations to this effect made to the Federal Government induced the latter to take action of a kind that most people conversant with the facts regard as fully warranted. Briefly, the scheme devised to cope with the situation is this. The Government has assumed the whole responsibility of shipping and selling that portion of the wheat crop intended for sale abroad. No private shipments will be allowed, and any vessel containing wheat shipped without Government authority will be refused clearance. Official agents, or firms employed by the Government to sell the wheat on commission, will take charge of the successive consignments at the ports of discharge and dispose of them to the best advantage. Each farmer on delivering his wheat at the port of shipment will receive advance payments at the rate of 3s. per bushel, and after the whole

quantity exported has been sold, any difference between the gross amount received and the sum advanced, plus a proportionate share of the costs incurred for freight, etc., will be paid to the producers. Assuming good business management, this plan should result satisfactorily. Obviously the Government, being able to guarantee large quantities of cargo, will be in a better position to obtain advantageous terms from shipowners than a number of small consignees, each struggling to obtain preference, would be; and the delivery of supplies will be far better regulated. It will be interesting to see how this experiment will succeed. The Government has a unique opportunity for showing its business capacity; and if public monopoly prove effective to check the abuse of private monopoly, and to prevent the appearance in Australia of "corners" and other such undesirable trans-Atlantic innovations, few will condemn, in circumstances so exceptional, this latest extension of the sphere of State action.

But qualified approval, however, can be bestowed on the Government's decision to buy up the whole of the coming sugar crop in Queensland at the price of about £18 per ton, and dispose of it to merchants and retailers on the condition that the price charged to the public shall not exceed a fixed sum per pound. There are various ways, familiar to astute traders, of evading obligations of this kind; and even the dreadful penalties imposed by law on those who infringed the provisions of the well-known "Law of the Maximum" in France during revolutionary times proved quite ineffective to prevent the adoption of such evasions on so large a scale as quite to defeat the main objects of the measure. The present scarcity of sugar in Australia is wholly attributable to artificial reasons. Fatuous legislation is the sole cause of it. So long as planters are restricted to the employment of utterly unsuitable labour at prohibitive rates, the sugar industry in the Commonwealth cannot possibly flourish, and will continue to be, as now, a wholly parasitic industry. To place it on a natural and remunerative basis permission must be granted to planters to employ coloured labour of a kind suited to tropical conditions. The wealth lost to the Commonwealth through the dominance for many years of a stupid and dangerous delusion is incalculable; and until it be recognised that Nature has imposed fixed limitations on the policy embodied in the formula "White Australia," not only will economic loss be suffered, but danger of foreign interference continue to increase.

It is a deplorable fact that in Australia to-day industries as a rule flourish in inverse proportion to the number of employees whose services are required by those controlling them. The pastoralist, as already mentioned, is in the happy position of being able, in favourable seasons, to produce much wealth with

little labour. The agriculturist is not so favoured. He has now the trade union as well as Nature and market fluctuations to reckon with. At the present time, after spending an uncomfortable year in the frying-pan, he has the agreeable prospect of falling into the fire. Such a trial, let us hope, may yet be averted. Compared with the outlook before the mine-owner, that before the agriculturist is nevertheless roseate. A period of deep gloom has overtaken the third of the three great primary industries in Australia. No industry is more dependent, first on large supplies of capital, and afterwards on a regular supply of skilled labour, than that of mining. Stable industrial conditions are vital to its prosperity; for so many men are employed in large mines that the difference of a few pence in the daily wage of each, or of a few minutes in the daily period of working, may make all the difference between profit and loss. A sudden diminution in the number of specially skilled men employed at a mine may also make it impossible to continue profitable operations. At the same time even a short stoppage of work necessitates often a considerable expenditure on its resumption. When the manager of a mine does not know but that any day, on account, perhaps, of a sharp word addressed by an impatient foreman to a union official, or to a slight increase in the local price of bread or beer, his men may, without notice, withdraw in a body, and leave him, possibly, without the assistance required to keep the underground workings free from water, he finds it difficult to satisfy even the most moderate demands of shareholders. And when the directors know that, whereas the values of metals may fall as well as rise, the rates of remuneration paid to employees cannot possibly fall, but in all probability will rise, their position is equally embarrassing. The war, by withdrawing men and temporarily closing markets, has added the last straw to the mine-owner's burden.

The outbreak of hostilities inflicted more injury on the mining industry than on any other pursued in the Commonwealth. Supplies of outside capital were cut off owing to the colossal demands of the Imperial Government, while at home capitalists were obliged to husband their resources in view of heavy war taxation. The call for recruits met from the beginning so warm a response in all the chief mining centres that in a short time labour of a suitable kind became scarce. In the case of one mine alone, out of 2,000 men employed before the outbreak of war, 500 had enlisted within the first six months following that event. Moreover, for a considerable space the products of many mines became unsaleable. Those producing refractory ores which had previously been sent for treatment to Germany were the chief sufferers, though there is reason to believe that ultimately one of

the beneficial economic results of the war will be the establishment of large metallurgical works in the Commonwealth, where the most scientific methods of ore treatment will be employed. Already important steps have been taken in this direction, and granting a fair amount of Government encouragement and reasonable labour conditions, there are grounds for hoping that within a few years very little, if any, crude ore will leave Australia.

So far the progress made by the mining industry towards recovery from the overwhelming shock administered last year has only been moderate. A great improvement, certainly, has taken place in the prices of metals—lead, tin and copper in particular—within the last six months; but this has been to a great extent counterbalanced by the increasing scarcity of men and money. And now the same danger that threatens the agriculturist menaces also those interested in the mining industry. The miners, through their union, are making demands for largely increased wages; and should these demands be ratified by the Arbitration Court, many mines undoubtedly will be closed down. Seeing that the wages now paid to men employed on Australian mines vary from 9s. 6d. to about 15s. a day, according to skill and conditions of work, it can hardly be contended that, in a reasonable sense, the Australian miner, usually a young unmarried man, is not receiving a “living wage.” The claims now made include legal provision for a minimum wage of no less than 11s. a day, with substantial increases for skilled men, and for those whose occupation is considered exceptionally dangerous.

Justification for these extraordinary and most unreasonable demands is based on the ground of increased cost of living. That shareholders in mining companies have to bear these additional burdens also, while, moreover, in all but a very few cases, they are now receiving no dividends at all, does not appeal to these unselfish citizens. Neither does the obvious consideration that directors of such companies naturally prefer to suspend operations altogether than continue them at a loss, enter into their sordid and unintelligent calculations. The attitude of mind of a typical specimen of a large class of working miners in Australia was well illustrated in the course of the evidence given in support of the miners' claims at a recent sitting of the Arbitration Court. One witness, an ordinary unskilled surface worker, admitted that his wages averaged £3 10s. a week. He complained, nevertheless, that, although the cost of living at the particular locality was not exceptionally high, he found it difficult to maintain his wife, child, and himself on so miserable a dole; and this absurd and self-condemnatory statement was taken quite seriously. Dozens of witnesses gravely testified their inability

to support life in a tolerable degree of comfort on allowances varying from 9s. to 12s. a day.

The standard of luxury among Australian miners a stranger might regard as somewhat high. If of a candid mind, after full investigation, he would be inclined to suspect the existence of improvidence and self-indulgence in mining centres; and the large number of public-houses to be found in such localities would strengthen the suspicion. The future prosperity of the Australian mining industry depends largely on a reformation of character and habits among a large section of Australian miners. Were men of the class referred to, the class that invariably incites discontent and turbulence, although often in a decided minority, to forsake the hotel for the savings bank, and listen to the persuasions of the life insurance agent rather than those of the sweep-promoter or bookmaker, the present campaign of stupid extortion which, if successful must ultimately bring to the victors only the triumph of destitution would speedily be abandoned. Some day, it is allowable to hope, the good sense and good morals of the superior class of workers in the Commonwealth will prevail over the wild counsels and unbounded rapacity of the present disturbers of the country's industrial peace.

A few final words as to the future. The end of the war will not mean for Australia or any other country the beginning of prosperity. Vergniaud's retort addressed to Robespierre in the course of an animated debate in the French revolutionary Assembly towards the close of the 18th century conveyed in a metaphorical form a profound truth. The billows continue to lash the shore long after the fury of the storm has ceased. The after-swell of the awful tornado now raging must severely strain the political and industrial fabric of each of the nations now rocking on the furious waves. There are some ultimate effects of a death-grapple among nations which the victors feel almost as acutely as the vanquished. The gallant dead cannot be brought again to life. The wealth poured profusely into the fiery crater of war cannot be recovered. The vast sum of physical and mental effort expended in attack or defence is gone beyond recall. After stupendous and abnormal effort there follows the reaction of lethargy. National energy for a time is quiescent. No pecuniary or territorial indemnities can make good these and other losses. They are the tribute which the God of War always exacts from those who voluntarily or by compulsion worship at his shrine. There are moral compensations of inestimable value, of course, to counter-balance these afflictions. Such, we may hope, the future inhabitants of a chastened Germany will fully share, for they sadly need a new code of ethics, or rather perhaps a restoration of the old. But confining our attention solely to the

immediate material and economic effects of war, it is hard to dispute that these are never at once beneficial.

Time, varying in duration according to the intensity of the late struggle, is needed to heal the wounds received both by the conquerors and the conquered. The industrial machine, totally disarranged and deprived for a time of essential parts, cannot fully be repaired and restored to efficiency for several years. Great social upheavals and disturbances often mark this middle period intervening between war and settled peace; for the disbandment of immense armies must for a time swamp the labour market, and lead to wholesale unemployment and destitution. In the case of Great Britain, where the transition of industrial activity from the production of the requirements of war to that of the requirements of peace must take time, there is likely to be, for a space, acute and widespread distress.

During that time of trouble Australia might well afford relief to the Mother Country, to her own great benefit. Her vast, unoccupied spaces can afford room for millions of the workless in Europe; and the adoption by the Commonwealth Government of an extensive scheme of immigration wholly or largely supported by State funds would be a most beneficent step. Emigrants from the United Kingdom, of course, should receive preference; but Belgium, Poland, and other allied countries that have suffered to an extreme degree from the ravages of war might also supply the Commonwealth with a most useful class of colonists. An appreciable political benefit, too, would follow the establishment in a great British Dominion of large numbers of our present gallant comrades-in-arms. Political ties would become strengthened by family ties, and the Entente would blossom into a lasting racial union. A great opportunity will present itself to the people of Australia on the termination of the war. If, as may be hoped, it is not neglected, one of the results of the struggle will be the tardy realisation of Canning's unfulfilled design. A new world will have been called into existence to redress the balance of the old.

That, for a time at all events, if not permanently, the war will bring about the shifting of the industrial centre of gravity of the world may be taken for granted. Europe's woe is now proving America's opportunity. To the United States for many years to come unquestionably will belong the crown of industrial supremacy. No attempt can be made in this paper to forecast the ultimate influences of the war on the manufacturing industries of the Commonwealth. But the prediction may safely be hazarded that, assuming wise legislation and due encouragement, these, as well as the primary industries, will be greatly stimulated. The recent erection of great steel works at Newcastle at a cost of

£1,200,000 by the British Broken Hill Proprietary Company is one of the most hopeful developments that Australia has witnessed for many years. Many more similar establishments should follow, especially in view of the probability that the war will expel large numbers of skilled metal-workers from Europe. Parenthetically, a hope may be expressed that, taught by late bitter experiences, Australia will not hereafter neglect the manufacture of the munitions of war essential to the safety of the country. A flourishing export trade in goods manufactured from wool should also arise, though the first great need of the Commonwealth is the extension of agricultural settlement.

In young communities possessed of vast, practically unoccupied territories the concentration of population in a few centres should be discountenanced in every way possible. Australia suffers too much already from this evil, and a policy of dispersion is most necessary. No industry requires an even distribution of population so much as that of agriculture, the industry that evoked Washington's high encomium, and that breeds the finest race of men. Not improbably, soon after the return of peace the United States will draw largely on Australian wheat fields and pastures for her supplies of food, paying for these with manufactures. The neighbouring Asiatic countries will also afford profitable markets for Australian agricultural products. Of the three great industries of the Commonwealth the circumstances that will exist at, and for some time after, the conclusion of peace would seem pre-eminently to favour that of agriculture. In the general impoverishment industries that exact more from labour than from capital will have best chances of success. The farm requires men rather than money; the mine demands money before it can make use of men; the station needs but little either in the way of men or money. The scope of opportunities offered by the pastoral industry is however but limited, while that of agriculture is practically unbounded. While for some years to come human labour probably will be plentiful in the Commonwealth, capital will be scarce and jealously hoarded. Under such conditions, should Australian agriculture not make unexampled progress during the unsettled period that must immediately follow the establishment of peace, to the great benefit of the people and the world in general, it will be because Australian legislators have failed to rise to a great occasion and, either through timidity or selfishness, have missed an unexampled opportunity.

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

December 10, 1915.

SIR EDWARD HOLDEN ON EXCHANGES

FEW men hold a higher or more authoritative position in the banking and financial world than Sir Edward Holden, chairman of the London City and Midland Bank. His annual address to the shareholders is always regarded as an event of first importance by the City of London, and special interest attached to the occasion this year in view of the valuable assistance he rendered in connection with the very successful loan which the Government recently placed with the American banks. After a few introductory remarks Sir Edward went on to say that, while it had been generally admitted that London was the financial centre of the world, it was predicted by some that after the war we might lose that position. In his opinion we should not only not lose our financial position, but we should greatly improve it, and our banking institutions would stand much higher in the estimation of the financial world than ever before.

London had been, and was at the present time, the financial centre of the whole world. From 1910 to 1915 we had lent to British possessions and foreign countries sums amounting to £944 millions sterling, and further large sums had been lent by the British Government to our Allies. In consequence of the war London's position was somewhat changed, and New York had come to the front as a great lender. England went into this war unprepared except as regards her navy, while Germany had been preparing and perfecting her army for the last twenty to forty years, and during the last fifteen years had been creating a powerful navy, and had carefully provided everything necessary for carrying on the war. As to whether this country was to blame for not paying attention to the warnings received for years before the war, that was a question outside the scope of his observations, but comparing the position of affairs now with that of affairs twelve months ago, one could not but be struck by the enormous amount of work which had been done, not only by ourselves, but by our Allies. He would like, also, to express his conviction that it was essential for us to retain such an amount of labour as was necessary to maintain our exports,

otherwise the Exchanges would fall and our gold would go. Of the Allies, the credit of Great Britain stood the highest, and had been used to assist the credit of the other Allied countries.

Having explained that the basis of our credit was the £ sterling, and that wherever we purchased we used the £ sterling, he cited several cases in which our imports had increased and consequently the Exchanges had gone against us. The Exchanges which had given us the most trouble were the Dutch and the American, and the trouble in both cases had been caused by increased imports. He described in detail the situation of Holland, remarking that there was a hope that Holland would buy Exchequer Bonds, and particularly so as in addition to the return of 5 per cent. on the Bonds the purchasers would make an additional profit out of the Exchange, but the Exchequer Bonds had met with a strong competitor in the Anglo-French Bond, issued in America and now being offered in Holland.

The most important Exchange we had was that between New York and London, and if they compared the last four or five years they would see how steady it had been compared with the present year. Having compared the rate from the years 1910 up to September 1915, when it dropped to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. he observed that several reasons had contributed to the drop. American purchases of Exchange on account of "Invisibles" were curtailed, the Finance Bills which usually matured in August were practically non-existent, the American cotton crop and the record wheat crop were beginning to move forward, and heavy payments for the increasing purchases by the British Government were being made.

These Government payments resulted in the selling of excessive amounts of sterling in New York, and as sellers were more numerous than buyers, the price of sterling fell, and would have continued to fall had not our Government sent out a Commission for the purpose of obtaining a loan out of which the purchases could be paid for without having recourse to the sale of sterling. The Commission met with great difficulty, and not the least difficulty was the opposition of the German-Americans, but the people generally were favourable to the loan, as it was designed to facilitate the trade between the two countries by lifting the exchange. The loan was for \$500 million, equivalent to about £100 million sterling, part of which was taken by France. It was purchased outright by American bankers, it being left to the purchasers to resell to the public. Great credit was due to the American bankers for the fair manner in which they met the Commissioners' proposals. Until this war broke out the largest loans ever floated by an European Government were the £80 million and the £120 million French Government

Loans of 1871 and 1872 respectively. These loans were issued to pay off instalments on the Prussian indemnity, and the French Minister announced that the larger loan was over-subscribed more than twelve times, seven times by foreigners and five times by the French nation. Previous to 1914 the largest single loan ever floated by Great Britain was the Boer War Issue of £60 millions in 1901. When they considered that there was a thoroughly well-organised movement to prevent American banks from participating in loans to the Allies by German-Americans having headquarters in New York, and particularly when such persons claimed to dominate the banks from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, he asserted not only that our Government but the people of the United Kingdom had been placed under a great obligation to the American bankers for the magnificent spirit they showed in buying straight out a loan of such magnitude. When the Commissioners left London the exchange was 4·50; when they arrived in New York it had risen to 4·72½, and when they reached London on their return it had fallen to 4·62.

By this time the work of the Commission began to be felt, and the English Joint Stock Bankers, mindful of the great injury to trade which these fluctuations cause, made arrangements whereby a further £10 millions sterling should be forthcoming to prevent further fluctuations. This sum was, if necessary, to be supported by an additional ten or twenty millions from other sources. Moreover, to their great credit, these English bankers had in August assisted the country by placing at the disposal of the Government twenty millions sterling of gold.

The fluctuations of these Exchanges were brought about mainly by the excessive amount of imports over exports. As we were inconvenienced so much in consequence of our increased importations, it was regrettable that our purchases were not reduced. He wished to impress the need for economy very emphatically on the minds of the men and women of this country, and to remind them there were only a few ways of paying for our imports.

Germany, by the Law of August 4th, 1914, released the Reichsbank from its obligation to pay its notes in gold, and further authorised the creation of all kinds of notes without any gold cover at all. Traffic in gold was restricted by a penal Statute, passed by the Bundesrat on November 23rd, 1914, the effect of which was to make the buying or selling of gold coin at a premium punishable by fine or imprisonment. As their gold was tied up, German traders could only pay for imports by exports and securities, or by borrowing, or if there was an excess of imports and sufficient additional securities were not forthcoming, the Exchanges must fall. It was quite certain, judging

from the excessive fall of the German mark that the imports into Germany from the Scandinavian countries and from Holland were largely in excess of her export of commodities and securities to those countries. Alluding to Holland, he detailed the increase in certain commodities which had been sent by that country into Germany during the eleven months ending November, 1915, over the corresponding period of 1913, and the decreases in the export of commodities from Germany to Holland during the like period, and he showed that the Amsterdam and Scandinavian Exchanges on Berlin evidenced that the exports of commodities and securities from Germany to Holland and Scandinavia were not sufficient to pay for Germany's imports from these countries.

Referring to the American trade with Holland, Denmark and Sweden there was in each case a large American export balance, a condition of affairs which should put the exchanges of those countries at a discount in New York. On the contrary, florins and kroner, as expressed in dollars, were at an appreciation, indicating that Holland and the Scandinavian countries were exporting securities to America in excess of their respective adverse trade balances. Where did they get these securities? Obviously from Germany. Although the German mark had fallen about 33 per cent. in Holland and about 23 per cent. in Scandinavia, they must not be too premature in drawing conclusions. While it might betoken an exhaustion of German securities, yet the situation might be rectified to some extent, if the gold were permitted to be exported. Of the two evils, a fall in the Exchange or a loss of gold, the German Finance Minister preferred the former, and kept his gold. He had some good reason for keeping the gold, and it might be that when peace was restored he would begin to import commodities as quickly as possible, and as he would not be able to pay for such imports either with a depreciated currency or with sufficient exports, he would pay with his gold and try to restore the Exchanges until such time as he could prepare his imported commodities for export.

Russia, France and Italy were pursuing the same policy with regard to the retention of gold, and the Exchanges had turned against them. We were financing their purchases in America to a large extent, and this tended to depreciate our own Exchange, as did their purchases through London irrespective of those through the Government. As London was the financial centre of the whole world, they must expect the £ sterling to be buffeted about by the whole world. How were we carrying the burden? In consequence of the work of the Commission, by which a credit for 50 millions sterling was raised for England, the Exchanges were relieved of the heavy pressure arising from the

sale of exchange to meet our increasing obligations to America, and during the last two or three months they had only had to carry the ordinary transactions of trade. All should be desirous, in the interest not only of the trade of this country with America, but also of the trade of every other country where the £ sterling was used as the medium of exchange, of seeing sterling exchange at such a point that there was no profit in taking gold from us. It was to be regretted that speculators, for the purpose of making a temporary profit, were doing all they could do to force it down. Our Government had been so desirous of facilitating the trade between this country and America, that it had appealed to all patriotic citizens to sell or lend to it their American securities, and it was of the greatest importance that all holders of such securities should come forward at the call of their country to assist in this great work. London had maintained, and would continue to maintain, the position of being the financial centre of the whole world, but it could only retain that position by being able to supply gold when gold was demanded. If, on the conclusion of the war, we were still a free market for gold, we should have scored a financial triumph as important to the country as a great victory in arms.

In conclusion, Sir Edward made some observations with regard to the War Loan issued in this country. He scarcely thought we had approached this question in the broad and comprehensive manner we might have done. He believed there was no class of investor in the world more patriotic than the British, and there was a sense undoubtedly in which the Government was to be warmly congratulated upon having raised something like a thousand millions at an average rate of $3\frac{5}{8}$ per cent., whereas Germany had been compelled to pay something over 5 per cent. This was a very great achievement. Nevertheless, it was absolutely necessary for a wider view to be taken by the Government of the financing of the war than was involved in the question of securing cheap terms for the British taxpayer. This was a manner in which it was vital that they should take not only a broad view but also a long view. He did not hesitate to assert that in the long run an infinitely more important matter even than the amount of interest paid out annually by the Exchequer, was that the resources of the country, as expressed in securities, should be as liquid as possible, and that our national credit, as expressed in the price of our securities, should be at a premium, not at a discount. This could only be accomplished if the Treasury looked the facts in the face, and placed its Loan on terms and conditions ensuring the freest market ability. The Government must remember that with the growth of our National Debt, and the diminution of our holding of foreign and

notably American securities, a vast proportion of the saved wealth of the country would, before the end of the war, be represented in Government securities, and it could not be a good thing, either from the standpoint of thrift, or from any other standpoint, that this wealth should stand at a discount, just as, previous to the War, it was bad for the country that the credit of the Government, as expressed by Consols, should have stood at so low a level.

Fortunately, the Government had shaped a course which still made it possible for the whole matter to be adjusted, because the greater part of the debt, as expressed in the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. loan, was convertible into any loan which might be issued on more favourable terms than the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. issue of last July. He pleaded therefore now with the Government that they should take no narrow or short-sighted view of this matter, but should look ahead and contemplate first the possibility of the war being of long duration, necessitating many future applications to the investor, and further, they should remember after the war, when restrictions were removed from the investment of our capital abroad, it was essential that the investor should not be driven into foreign securities for high yields of interest. The Government must see to it that in all its future loan operations that while prudently conducted from the standpoint of the Exchequer, the still more vital consideration was kept in mind of insuring that the national wealth, as represented in Government securities, should tend to appreciate rather than depreciate, and that when the war came to an end, the conditions should be such as to retain British capital within the country and not to cause it to be unduly attracted abroad until such time as the balance of trade was once again overwhelmingly in our favour. With the exception of this country, every nation had not hesitated to fling aside altogether the Income Tax on its War Loan, and whilst he did not suggest that it was necessary for our Government to take this extreme step, he believed it to be absolutely essential that the investor should be able to know at any rate what was the maximum amount of Income Tax he was called upon to pay on the amounts devoted to the carrying on of the war.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE COUNTRY

GROWING NEED FOR MORE ENLIGHTENMENT

At the risk of being called pessimistic, I wish to show that it is for the people to assert themselves in this great fight for political and economic freedom, if we desire to attain real victory. There is no doubt that after a year and a half of warfare many of the people dwelling safely at home in these happy islands do not fully realise the seriousness of our position. This inability to grasp the facts of the case is a much graver matter for us than it would be in the case of our allies, or is in the case of our common enemy.

There are two reasons why this non-realisation is more detrimental to us than to most other nations. The first is that we are nominally a democracy, and that in the last resort it is the mass vote which decides, at any rate while constitutional forms are not yet in abeyance. If, therefore, the majority of the people are lulled into the delusive belief that we can muddle through this war as we have muddled through others, they will naturally object to any measures which seem to them to be going beyond the necessities of the case. It is difficult to say that this attitude is altogether deserving of condemnation while those who adopt it are kept in ignorance, not only of the far-reaching issues involved in the present conflict, but also of the hideous possibility that—given certain untoward conditions—we may not be able fully to achieve the end to which the words of our Sovereign have devoted us. The second is that we are mainly dependent for our food supplies on overseas sources, so that our imports tend constantly to outweigh our exports. Any undue prolongation of war conditions must therefore have a serious effect on our national solvency to a much greater degree than in the case of more self-supporting countries.

If then we are finally to avert the possibility of disaster, it is absolutely necessary that the whole nation, irrespective of class, creed, occupation, or position, should be awakened to an intelligent realisation of all that is involved, and of all that is essential to our end.

It is conceivable that if we had a strong despotic government we might, as do our enemies, perform the most stupendous feats of national organisation and national accomplishment while remaining in a state of absolute delusion as to the meaning and results of the war. Such a despotic regulation of the lives and occupations of our people is of course, and happily, impossible. The result might equally be attained if the popular vote had placed in power a band of well-equipped men of single purpose, as to whose war efficiency there could be no doubt, and in whom everyone could and would place the most implicit confidence. That is the ideal for this country. It is, however, necessary to inquire how far the record of the present Cabinet justifies us in extending to it any degree of blind trust. To begin with, the original members of the Cabinet are the men who not only shut their own eyes to the dangers of which they were aware but abstained from indicating to the nation the extent and imminence of those dangers. Have they not therefore incurred "the condemnation which history always pronounces upon those who are false to a great trust?"*

What about Mr. Asquith himself? On March 2, 1908, he said: "Even where, as in the case of Germany, there is no express compact, we have the best reason to hope and believe that the two peoples are every year advancing nearer and nearer to a complete mutual understanding." In January 1910 he was unable to discern in any quarter of the political horizon "any cause of quarrel, direct or indirect, between us and that great and friendly nation" (Germany.) After Lord Haldane's visit to Germany—that visit which caused the late War Minister those misgivings imparted, as he tells us, to the rest of the Cabinet, Mr. Asquith said:—

Our relations with the great German Empire are at this moment, and I feel sure are likely to remain, relations of amity and goodwill. Lord Haldane paid a visit to Berlin early in the year; he entered upon conversations and an interchange of views which have been continued since in a spirit of perfect frankness and friendship both on the one side and the other.

Did that perfect frankness include a German explanation of the reason for the strategic railways on the Belgian frontier; or were the Cabinet ignorant of the existence of these railways?

On March 16, 1914, Mr. Asquith endorsed Mr. Churchill's opinion that it was wicked and immoral to use the argument of an inevitable war. In 1912 Mr. Runciman tendered his apologies to Germany for Lord Roberts' "unjustifiable" words towards a friendly Power, and said that there was no question of military or naval supremacy, only commercial rivalry. On March 28 in the following year the same Minister told us at Merthyr

* Mr. Asquith, March 16, 1909.

that we were never going to embark on Continental military enterprises. We had no quarrel with Germany and war was a tragic mark on the failure of statesmanship. He made the usual felicitous reference to generals and scaremongers.

Lord Haldane observed in 1910 that in naval and military defence we were absolutely and completely equipped to meet all emergencies and situations and that the person who said we were not was, in so many words, a coward. Two years later,* *after* his return from Germany, he said:—

No one has a greater veneration for the figure of Lord Roberts than I have. He has done great things for his country. He is one of the most distinguished leaders of troops in the field whom we possess. But it is one thing to lead troops in the field and another to be a strategist. Until a man was a strategist he could not fashion plans and organisations for the defence of the country. What I miss in Lord Roberts of to-day is just that understanding of the point of view of the seaman and the statesman which is absolutely vital if we are to make a proper military organisation.

After Mr. Asquith's handsome testimonial to Lord Haldane we must assume that the Prime Minister fully approved these statements of his colleague, and therefore the guilt of the misleading utterance of November 24, 1913, is to be equally shared. On that occasion Lord Haldane assured the nation that the Continental Chiefs of Staff were mostly rational persons "who were much less keen over the invasion of other countries than some people among us supposed."

Sir Edward Grey, supporting the reduction of armaments, said on May 9, 1906, "I do hold that a declaration of this kind is something worth having, if only for the effect it may have on other Governments." By March 29, 1909, however, he appears to have revised his opinion, for we find him expressing himself thus:—

We should cease to count for anything amongst the nations of Europe (if we failed to maintain our sea-power), and we should be fortunate if our liberty were left and we did not become the conscript appanage of some stronger power. That is a brutal way of stating the case, but it is the truth.

An instance of the Foreign Minister's inability to grasp the essentials of a situation is revealed in a comparison of the Russian declaration on July 24, 1914, that "Britain would have rendered war more likely if she did not from the outset make common cause with Russia and France," with the message on the 29th of that month to our Ambassador at Paris, that "If Germany became involved and France became involved, we had not made up our minds what we should do; it was a case that we should have to consider."

Mr. McKenna, on December 25, 1909, exhorted us to dismiss

* November 20.

anxiety and to sleep comfortably in our beds, and on December 31, 1910, he said :—

A well-known Socialist writer has been pressed into the service of a Tory newspaper in order to make your blood creep with horrible imaginings as to the designs of a great friendly foreign Power. I don't know what effect the articles that have been written might have upon that great and friendly Power, but I am sure that they have had very little effect on the feeling of the people of this country, and I am sure that *they have no influence on a single vote.*

The present Home Secretary, in a little volume, 'England and Germany,' published in 1912, was able to endorse this view :—

The world is beginning to realise that the development of a foreign nation in wealth and culture is a reason, not for hostility, but for gratitude, for wealth and culture diffuse themselves and their benefits spread far beyond their place of origin.

And Mr. Lloyd George, writing in the *Nation* on October 30, 1909, said :—

I predict that another concerted effort will be made to rouse a fresh naval or military panic, so as to rush the Government into the criminal extravagance of unnecessary armaments on sea and land.

Thus far I have quoted from the original members of the Cabinet. They must have had official information as to the extent of Germany's preparations and the sinister nature of Germany's designs. In their public utterances then they were at least guilty of a *suppressio veri* if not of *suggestio falsi*. Those members of the Cabinet recruited from the ranks of the Opposition may be presumed to have been ignorant of what the Ministry in power from 1906 were necessarily aware. Some of them, however, should have been cognisant of the share Germany had in the genesis of the Boer War. Three quotations will typify their part in the hushaby chorus which kept the nation in drowsy ignorance of its peril. Mr. Balfour on September 7, 1908, wrote in the *Daily Mail* : "I cannot conceive what interest Germany has in attacking us." Also on January 4, 1910 : "I do not believe there is going to be war between this country and any great foreign Power." In 'England and Germany,' already referred to, Mr. Bonar Law says : "I hear it also constantly said—there is no use shutting our eyes and ears to obvious facts—that, owing to divergent interests, war some day or other, between this country and Germany, is inevitable. I never believe in these inevitable wars."

But quotations of this class are the commonplaces of the day, and might be almost indefinitely multiplied. Is there a single member of the Coalition Ministry who can claim our confidence on the ground that in the past he has consistently and persistently warned us of the danger that awaited us? Did they not all,

to say the least, abstain from any such warning? It is not necessary to assign to this abstinence, despicable motives in order to see how fatally opposed is the past attitude of Ministers of the Crown to that which should characterise resolute leaders of a united nation in face of a determined, skilful, and unscrupulous enemy.

It might well have been, however, that the onset of war aroused the official guardians of the national safety to an actual sense of the paramount duty, a single-minded devotion to what was required of them. If this were the case, every sane man would resolutely crush any misgivings arising from the past. No one has any desire to reproach those in whom we long to confide with anything which the outbreak of war has rendered ancient history. To insist on past failings is to be equally guilty of political bias and the wish to make political capital; yet the homely proverb, "Once bit twice shy," is of justifiable application even in the lofty domain of State governance, and we are entitled to refrain from giving our full confidence to those who have deluded us in the past, until such time as they have afforded proof of their desire and capacity to devote themselves to the one supreme end—a decided victory and a satisfactory and lasting peace. But have we had conclusive evidence that the members of the Cabinet are so actuated? Has any explanation been given of their failure to act, at any rate till compelled by the nation, in the following matters?

- (1) Arrest enemy reservists in neutral ships.
- (2) Make cotton contraband.
- (3) Dismiss their German metal broker.
- (4) Assist Australia to break the German monopoly of spelter and other crude metals.
- (5) Stop supplies going into Germany through neutral countries.
- (6) Intern all aliens of whatever rank.
- (7) Confiscate the property of all enemy firms trading in this country.
- (8) Compel every man to serve his country. In particular, why is Ireland exempted from the present measure of compulsion, whilst Irish members, in a matter which did not concern them, voted against the Compulsion Act?

This list is probably not exhaustive, but it will serve to show that it is for the people to supply the driving power.

With regard to the fifth item, the "man in the street" has during the past eighteen months noted in bewilderment the amazing increase in the imports of tea, cocoa, coffee, and maize to the neutral countries surrounding Germany, as set forth in the daily press. In 1913, 105,866 cwt. of coffee were imported into Holland; for the first eleven months of 1915 the amount was over five times as great—599,815 cwt. In December, 245,315 cwt. of coffee were imported by Holland—double the quantity imported for a whole year in pre-war times. A similar tale is

told by the tea figures. Scandinavia, Denmark, and Holland in 1913 took 5,050,768 lbs. of tea. These countries imported 17,769,025 lbs. up to December 31, 1915. The last week in December, 1915, these neutral States took over five times their normal quantities of tea.

The cocoa figures are still more remarkable. Holland has quadrupled its imports. Denmark's liking for cocoa has gone up in round figures from 50,000 lbs. in 1913 to 10,000,000 lbs. in 1915; and Scandinavia from 343,000 lbs. to 14,606,309 lbs. in the corresponding years. Maize exported from the United Kingdom in 1912 was 488,380 cwt., for eleven months in 1915 it was 2,707,104 cwt. Malt shows a similar ratio of increase.

The *New York Journal of Commerce* states that, whereas the United States exports have quintupled to Russia and quadrupled to France and Italy, and there was an increase of £200,000,000 in the value of exports to the United Kingdom, there is a "still greater ratio of increase of exports to neutrals like Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. . . . Most of this trade filters through to Germany and Austria-Hungary, in spite of the British blockade."

A similar confession comes from the Argentine. The *River Plate Review* informs us that before the war Holland, Sweden, and Denmark were unimportant from the standpoint of Argentine exports, but that since the war, "by reason of their geographical position," have attained to great importance. In 1913, 104,842 tons of linseed were shipped from the Argentine to "other destinations," comprising thirteen countries, which included neutral States surrounding Germany, whereas in ten months last year Holland alone took 268,545 tons. Other destinations took 256,743 tons of maize in 1913; but in ten months in 1915 Holland took 512,581 tons, Sweden 121,404 tons, and Denmark 226,823 tons. Thus to three out of thirteen destinations have gone 860,808 tons of Argentine maize—more than has gone to the United Kingdom, United States, and France combined.

Are these figures indicative of the Cabinet's firm support of our naval blockade? Are they in accordance with the theory that we are wearing Germany down by a rapid process of attrition and economical exhaustion? Or do they not rather indicate that the nation must insist on the Government doing its duty and rendering effective that blockade on which so much depends? May we not instance the puerile declaration of Lord Crewe as a sample of the official utterances which should help us to make up our minds? *

It might have been thought that the *volte-face*, which on the

* In the House of Lords debate on this subject: "I do not care if the whole German nation stupefies itself (*sic*) with tea."

outbreak of war the Cabinet deemed necessary on the question of the high moral qualities and engaging civilisation of the Germans, would have rendered them careful as to their future public utterances. Nevertheless, to judge from Mr. Asquith's Newcastle *dictum* as to munitions, he has not vastly improved. Contrast that dictum with General Sir Ian Hamilton's statement: "Working out my ammunition allowance, I found I could accumulate just enough high-explosive shell to enable me to deliver one serious attack per each period of three weeks." (Of the period before August 6.) Again, on August 15 General Sir Ian Hamilton cabled to the effect that if the campaign was to be brought to a quick, victorious decision large reinforcements must at once be sent out. British divisions alone were 45,000 under establishment. Do not these statements give food for reflection?

Sir Ian Hamilton's request met with a decided negative. There may have been good reasons for this refusal, but the request remains. How then account for the fact that statements emanating from both the Foreign Office and the War Office were made in Parliament, with the deliberate purpose of reassuring the public as to the prospects of speedy victory for the Gallipoli campaign? These statements were made after the receipt of Sir Ian Hamilton's cabled request for large drafts and reinforcements.

If then we are unable to regard the Coalition Ministry as efficient leaders, we must for our own sakes impress them with the determination which is steadily growing amongst us. To support us in this attitude we have the explicit declaration of a former member of the Cabinet, who more than any other was responsible not only for our lack of preparation for war, but actually for the German determination to seize the earliest opportunity of waging that war. In an article on "Democracy and Ideas," which appears in the *Nation*,* Lord Haldane points out that we were defective inasmuch as we have never been receptive to ideas, nor has it been our habit to call on our leaders to think strenuously for us. And he goes on to say:—

When the time comes to take stock, I think the wonder will be, not that we were so unprepared, but that we were as well prepared as was the case. For the public did not insist that the unrest of Europe should be the foremost subject of political consideration, nor was it ready to devote the nation's energies to securing its future in peace any more than in war. The democracy in this country was suffering from an indisposition to listen to the few who preached.

If its leaders were penetrated with ideas the democracy would soon be penetrated also. I have seen a good deal of democracy in my time. It is a common and grievous error to suppose that it does not appreciate and desire what is best in knowledge. Its hesitation arises about getting real knowledge, either from its politicians or its press. And this scepticism, which is due to a

* August 7th, 1915.

good deal of unfortunate experience, has to be overcome if progress is to be made. Now, it can only be overcome if the leaders of democracy, whether in the senate, or in the press, or in the public, will themselves get ideas and express them with conviction and even passion. Then the democracy will believe too, and by the faith so born mountains will in time be removed.

We are therefore entitled to act on Lord Haldane's advice, more particularly in view of his close relations with the Prime Minister, who must therefore be assumed to have been cognisant not only of Lord Haldane's reticence in the past, but of the nature of his explanation of that reticence. That cognisance must have been shared, unless Mr. Asquith and Lord Haldane were in a conspiracy of two, by the other members of the pre-war Cabinet, and Lord Haldane says it was so shared. If therefore this war is to be prosecuted to a successful conclusion it is necessary for the nation to make up its mind as to what is to be done—to announce that determination in a way unmistakable to the most obtuse or opinionated member of the Cabinet. This means that the pressure of public opinion must be brought to bear. But it must be brought to bear in the right direction, and that direction can only be determined after careful consideration based on real knowledge. There is at present an uneasy feeling abroad that the Defence of the Realm Act is being used as much to shield the perpetrators of blunders as to mystify the enemy.

We must also have a resolute understanding as to the principles underlying proper terms of peace and the *post-bellum* activities of the Empire in many directions.

It is a true saying that any nation has the government it deserves. This is only another way of stating the fact that the mode of government is itself an expression of the character of the people governed. Weakness and ignorance invite despotism. Fickleness and instability are productive of frequent revolution. Enlightenment and resolution are the best safeguards of a reasonable constitution. History shows us that in some instances the salvation of a people has been brought about by the imposition upon a feeble and divided race of a firm rule from an alien source.

If then we have reason to regard our present Cabinet with some degree of dissatisfaction we must, before assuming the moral right to condemn, see whether those whom we have placed in authority are not really representative, even in their less desirable characteristics, of our own failings. Of course action and reaction are always present and effective, so that it is not always possible to disentangle cause from effect. Nevertheless it is possible to observe certain tendencies, particularly during the last century, the net result of which has been that contemptuous estimate of British character and capabilities which led our present opponents to regard us as negligible in the sphere of European influences.

With the close of the Napoleonic conflict Great Britain entered on a period of great prosperity. The predominance of our naval power ensured us the command of the sea and the possibility of colonial expansion. The Navigation Acts equally gave an overwhelming impetus to our mercantile development. The invention of machinery and the utilisation of steam enabled us to be the pioneers in manufacture in a way which, aided by our unique mineral resources, operated as a very effective industrial handicap in our favour. It followed that from 1830 to 1875 we had almost a monopoly of the world's navigation, engineering, and textile and other manufactures. The story of Continental and South American railways during that period is almost entirely written in English. The rise of the Yorkshire cloth-weaving industry, the expansion of the Midland hardware and machinery towns, and the continual raising of the standard of wealth and comfort are all tributes to the substantial nature of the advantage we gained from our early start.

Unfortunately the ease with which this advantage was obtained misled us in two directions. In the first place it induced us to concentrate our attention on the industrial occupations to the neglect and exclusion of the agricultural. During the rise to this maximum of our industrial supremacy we lost sight entirely of the fact that the primary object of all labour is to provide food, and ignored the necessity to the nation of a sturdy, contented, and vigorous peasantry. The migration from the countryside into the towns was encouraged. The cynical doctrine of Cobden that the prosperity of a country depended on a plentiful supply of cheap labour led us to exploit our children, to neglect our agriculture, and to pride ourselves on drawing our food supplies from every quarter of the globe. So infatuated were we with these doctrines that we actually refused to note the way in which the growing power of our industrial competitors was utilising them against that very mechanical supremacy on which we prided ourselves. Thus, having crippled our agriculture from the desire to assist our manufactures, we clung to the fetish of Free Trade even when it was militating against the interests of those manufactures.

The second mischievous effect was the imposition of a material standard which debased our motives and lowered our criteria of national worth. Wealth was held up as the *summum bonum* of human effort. Men were estimated not according to their moral worth, but in strict ratio to their wealth. To get on was supposed to be the highest if not the sole duty of the young. The prosperous were held up as worthy objects of imitation, both as to the nature of their efforts and the completeness of their success. The inevitable result was the disintegration

involved in the transfer of the respect due to exalted character, fine intellect, or profound wisdom and learning, from those possessed of these higher qualities to those who were notorious for wealth, however ill-acquired. In inevitable sequence from this refusal to pay respect where respect is fitly due came the neglect to employ the resources of science to safeguard established, and to promote nascent, industries.

This neglect was not confined to the trading and manufacturing classes, but characterised also the official and governing sections of the community, so that the chemists and inventors rejected in the industrial world were in no higher degree welcomed by those responsible for our legislation, our defence, or our Imperial relations. The net result of this indifference to intellectual effort, this resolute ignoring of scientific investigation, has been to stereotype not only the process and its product, but also the routine and the outlook. We have lost the chemical industries which ought to have belonged to us for no other reason than our brutal pig-headedness over the question of scientific values. We have alienated many prospective customers and lost valuable markets because of our benighted adherence to old-fashioned methods, British weights and measures, and the English language.

The Nemesis which dogs all ideals, save the highest, has not failed to present itself to our materialistically minded community. The debasement of desire has been followed by a diminution of power. The self-same materialistic outlook which has fastened our gaze on the things of this world as alone desirable has hindered that material expansion towards which we were devoting our efforts.

Not less has this material outlook clogged our advance towards higher ideals of morality, of patriotism, of disinterestedness. The people have been encouraged to clamour for material benefits and to shun duty. The mechanical methods of factory production have destroyed the self-respect of the skilled worker and turned the producer of a complete article into a mere cog in a soulless machine, having no interest in and no knowledge of the ultimate result of his labour. In the jargon of the economist we have transmuted the former producer's interest into consumer's interest, so that the worker's goal is now the receipt of payment and not the production of a soul-satisfying sample of intelligent workmanship. We have substituted the hope of material reward for the sense of craftsmanship and duty, as the actuating motive of all labour.

The employer has equally with the employed undergone a slow deterioration. The rapid rise of joint stock enterprise has almost eliminated the *firm*. The shareholders clamour for

dividends and the paid manager is almost irresistibly tempted to sacrifice to that clamour any real living interest in his work-people.

This materialistic outlook has reacted on politics so that the most highly esteemed politician is he who by flattery, cajolery, empty rhetoric, or even downright trickery can secure the maximum of advantage to his party, irrespective of any incidental detriment to the general well-being. All this has to be changed, and to effect the change we must arouse an enlightened public opinion.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

AGRICULTURE IN CYPRUS

THE Island of Cyprus, which had been administered by Great Britain since 1878 under the Convention with Turkey, was, on the outbreak of war with Turkey, annexed to His Majesty's dominions. The Agricultural Department has been greatly extended and its staff increased during the past few years, and with its extension and greater power of activity a corresponding increase of interest is being shown towards it by the agricultural classes. The efforts of the department have been directed mainly to the development of the silkworm-rearing industry, the introduction of new crops for human and for cattle food, extending and improving the cultivation of fruit and other trees, and combating insect and fungus pests. The silk industry affords remunerative occupation to a large number of small people, and the total annual revenue to the island should in time amount to a very appreciable figure. The war points the necessity of familiarising the people with new kinds of food for themselves and their cattle, and it is satisfactory to note that rye, oats, and Indian corn are becoming popular, while Indian corn, lucerne, reana (teosinte), berseem (Egyptian clover), and mangel-wurzel are now being grown in several parts of the island. Cattle-feeding as an industry is unknown, and yet there are many well-watered localities in the island where the breeding of cattle could be profitably carried on. A goodly number of cattle are annually exported, and it is important that the supply should be maintained and increased.

THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN SOUTH AFRICA

BRITISH AND GERMAN RIVALRY

WHEN General Botha captured German South-West Africa he made an interesting discovery. He found a map, which a German had drawn up, of an imaginary Peace of Rome, 1916. In this the whole of Africa south of the Equator, with a very small portion marked "Boer Reservation," appeared as a "Greater German Empire." Here, then, we have the key to South African history during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and to Germany's real intentions regarding that part of the continent.

Over three-quarters of a century before Germany had dreamed of a colonial empire, the British had planted colonies and formed interests in South Africa. At length the Germans came and established themselves on our flanks. They contemplated nothing less than the occupation of the vast hinterland and consequent limitation of Britain's expansion northwards. The situation presented a striking analogy to that in North America during the first half of the eighteenth century, when the French occupied territory on either side of the British colonists, in Canada on the north, and in the valley of the Mississippi in the south. Their first object was to obtain sole control of the hinterland and confine the British to the strip of country between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. But they looked forward to the day when they should rid the country altogether of the English. The Germans in South Africa cherished the same hope and ambition, and the situation was complicated by the presence of the Dutch, whose co-operation the Germans managed to secure.

From the standpoint of the nationalists the Dutch people were between the devil and the deep sea. They had to choose between two masters. Froude hoped they might choose England. Unfortunately for themselves, for us and for South Africa they chose Germany. As a matter of fact, there was a feud of many years' standing between the British and Dutch, and the breach, which disagreement over the slavery question had opened, a

succession of unfortunate incidents had widened. The worse elements happened to have risen to the top in the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies, with the result that they became the tools of the Germans. It was the cherished dream of these people to establish an independent Dutch State embracing the whole of South Africa, and the Germans found it to their purpose to encourage the nationalists' ambition; just as in a former age the French had supported England's rebellious American colonists in the War of Independence. But what to the eye of the superficial observer was a struggle between the British and Dutch races for supremacy was to one who saw deeper a struggle between the British and the Germans. For the Dutch were all the time the pawns of the Germans; and without recognition of this fact it is impossible to attain to a right understanding of South African history.

Britain's earliest acquisition in South Africa was the Cape Colony, awarded to her by the Congress of Vienna held at the close of the War of the French Revolution. The extent of the new British possession was at first undefined, but an Act of Parliament passed in 1836 made all white persons in territory south of lat. 25° amenable to the colonial courts. In 1837 a number of Dutch, who, like the southern States of North America in 1861, elected to secede from the colony rather than abandon the practice of keeping slaves, trekked northwards and settled in the district which afterwards became the colony of Natal. Conquered by the Cape Colonists in 1843 the irreconcilables of their number trekked to a spot beyond the Drakensberg Mountains, where dissatisfied Dutch had from time to time migrated. Such was the origin of the two Dutch Republics, the Orange Free State and Transvaal.

It had been the policy of the British to encourage, under their protection, the growth along their northern frontier of a number of semi-independent native States, and the people of these States, the Kaffirs, Basutos, and Hottentots gradually became completely subject to the rule of Britain. With the Dutch beyond the Orange River the British did not interfere till events occurred that led to a change in policy. One was the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West, the other the appearance of the Germans in the west. Disputes with the Dutch over Griqualand West resulted in a war which ignominiously terminated in the defeat of Majuba Hill, and the Boers were left in possession of their independence subject to the nominal suzerainty of Britain. At this time the northern boundary of the British territories in South Africa was a line running along the Orange River, Drakensberg Mountains and Tugela River to the Indian Ocean.

Before the defeat of the British at Majuba Hill little had been

heard of the Germans in Africa. But the Franco-German War had opened a new epoch in the world's history. From the close of the Middle Ages onward the successive epochs have been distinguished from one another by the rise to prominence of some particular nation. There were the eras of the Dutch, Spanish, and French, respectively. Their aim was always first to make themselves supreme on the continent; secondly, to acquire colonial empire, oversea trade, and maritime power. For the three last-named things are inter-dependent. Britain has always been the self-constituted champion of the doctrine of the balance of power, and regarded as her enemy any nation that aspired to be over all the others, whether it was Spain under Philip II., or France under Louis XIV. and Louis XV., and Napoleon Bonaparte. On the other hand nations that desire to be great colonial and naval powers rouse her suspicion and excite her jealousy. Interests are bound to clash sooner or later as in North America and India in the eighteenth century. Germany's victory in the Franco-German War made her the first nation on the Continent. The inevitable sequel was that she looked further afield, and was ambitious of founding a colonial empire. But there was only one continent that had any unallotted spaces for Germany to occupy. In Africa in the twentieth century the Germans under William II. played the same part as in India and North America in the eighteenth century the French had played under Louis XV.

It is said that as far back as 1876 Burgers, at that time President of the Transvaal, negotiated at Berlin for a German Protectorate of the Transvaal. Two years later one Von Weber, a traveller, drew attention to the possibilities which the Transvaal presented to German emigrants. The idea of an empire in South Africa may have been suggested to German statesmen by such chance circumstances. About 1880 German missionaries, explorers, and traders, became very active in both East and West Africa. There as in India, North America, and other places, trade went before the flag. It was the appeal of German traders for protection that seems to have induced their Government to take the first step in the creation of a colonial empire, and annex Angra Pequena in 1884. In that year the German Chargé d'Affaires in London was requested to inform the English Government privately, that the whole of the West African coast between lat. 26° and Cape Frio, with the exception of Walvisch Bay, had been placed under the protection of the German Empire. Germany thus established herself on the west flank of the British in South Africa.

Meanwhile German merchants had been active in the East of Africa, and soon after 1880 they commenced to aim at political

influence in that quarter. The Berlin Conference held in 1884-5 gave them possession of Witu and Usagara which had belonged to the Sultan of Zanzibar, whose alliance with England rendered him a subject for their attacks. In connection with this, a letter written to the *Times* by Sir H. Johnston in 1886 has a special interest for us at the present time, on account of the wonderful insight which it shows the writer to have had into German aims and policy and attitude towards England. He says: "If Germany wants an outlet for her over-population (who, with the exception of a few enthusiastic savants, have not the slightest desire to colonise tropical Africa), why does she not take the many waste places of the earth still without definite or recognised ownership?" After indicating one such in East Africa he proceeds, "But then, you see, this district is a wilderness inhabited by fierce and roving tribes, without rich, ancient, undefended towns, in the bombarding of which a cheap glory may be obtained. So Germany thinks it preferable to attack a weak but wealthy State that can only reply to her assaults by wordy protests." He concludes by stating that it is the intense envy of English influence, English trade, and English prosperity, which has provoked this unjustifiable attack on the Sultan of Zanzibar.

After the Germans had established themselves on the east and west flanks of the British in South Africa, they sought to set up a bar to their expansion northwards. In this design they secured the co-operation of the Dutch. The story of their attempts to execute it, and of the measures taken to frustrate them resembles a game of chess. Again and again their deeply conceived and cunningly executed moves were checkmated by their rivals, but that these did not succeed often seemed little short of a miracle. The Goddess of Chance, to whom the English seem to have entrusted the care of their destinies in the Dark Continent, was more constant in her favours than is her wont. On the one side was the wisdom and strength of a united government with a clearly defined and settled policy, on the other the unsupported and spasmodic efforts of individuals on the spot. To foresight and careful preparation were opposed happy-go-lucky and haphazard measures and methods that were the inspiration of the moment. It is in this way that the British Empire has been built up, the greatest triumph that history affords of individual enterprise. On the sons of Britain who left her shores for far countries to trade, explore, or convert the heathen, or for other purposes, there often devolved the functions of kings and captains, statesmen and diplomats, law-makers and administrators. What is more wonderful they generally rose to the occasion, grasped the true nature of a situation and acted with promptitude, resolution, and courage.

From the Home Government they seldom received much encouragement. Sometimes they dared on their own responsibility what, in the event of failure, would have landed them in a prison or on a scaffold. They seldom received an adequate, often no reward for their services and labours. On the contrary calumny and misunderstanding were frequently their portion. This did not seem to surprise or disappoint them, the knowledge that they were serving the country they loved being to them sufficient recompense. Many officials of the East Indian and Hudson's Bay companies were in former centuries members of this noble army of empire-builders. Among later additions to it are numbered those who were associated with the work of the British South African and Imperial East African companies in the nineteenth century. Of these, the most prominent was the great Cecil Rhodes. His career was intimately bound up with that of his country. "Living he was the land." The event, the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West, which opened up a new epoch in the history of South Africa, was also the turning point in the life of Rhodes, and led to his making his fortune. His wealth and the power which it brought with it he used to extend the empire and defeat the designs of her rivals. Empire-building was his hobby, imperialism his ruling passion.

It was Rhodes who induced the British Government to declare a Protectorate over Bechuanaland. The German annexation of the country round Walfisch Bay and the Boer advance into Stellaland opened our eyes to the merits of a course of policy to which we had hitherto been blind, and which are clearly demonstrated in a speech made by Mr. W. E. Forster about that time. The then Secretary for Ireland showed himself alive to the menace which the establishment of the Germans in the west constituted to British interests in South Africa, and emphasised the necessity of securing the trade route from the Cape to the Zambesi. He also reminded us that if we lost the Cape it would be to some other civilised nation :—

I think [he said] we know and see what other civilised nation that would be. Do you suppose that they would allow—that either the Germans or any other civilised nation which obtained the Cape would allow us to keep a Gibraltar in South Africa at Table Bay? No, it would mean that we should lose our station on the high road to India, and I firmly believe that that would be the beginning of the decline and fall of the Empire.

The annexation of Bechuanaland prevented the German occupation of West Africa from having these disastrous consequences to British rule. It saved our South African empire; and was the first step in the process of driving a wedge of British territory in between the Dutch and German territories, by means of which their junction was prevented.

The annexation of Bechuanaland was a step, but only a step, towards the defeat of Germany's designs on the hinterland. There remained the possibility of Germany occupying the unappropriated country to the north. This was evident to Rhodes, but in his efforts to prevent what was likely to be the source of future trouble he received little support from the Home Government. He defeated the intrigues of the Germans in Matabeleland, by prompting the High Commissioner to extract in 1887 a promise from Lobengula, chief of the Matabeles, that the first offer of a civilised protectorate of his country, if he should ever desire one, should be made to Britain. He was only just in time to invalidate a later agreement entered into with the Transvaal. Rhodes' next move was to obtain a concession of mineral rights, and it was this concession which formed the basis of the British South African Company. To this Company a charter was granted in 1889, in which the territory of the new company is defined as "lying immediately to the north of British Bechuanaland, and to the north and west of the South African Republic, and to the west of the Portuguese dominions." In the course of time the company extended its operations beyond the Zambesi, where, at a later date, the British Central African Protectorate was formed. The work commenced by Sir H. Johnston in Nyassaland and afterwards carried to completion under official conditions was also made possible by Rhodes' subsidies.

In 1890 the German menace appeared in another quarter. South of the Zambesi and east of German South-West Africa lies Ngamiland, which formed part of the district we had annexed as Bechuanaland. Ngamiland was desirable from a material standpoint, being salubrious, fertile, and rich in minerals. Its political value was even greater. It has been called the key of South Africa, and endowed its fortunate possessor with the control of the trade route from the Cape to Zambesi. A German occupation of Ngamiland would have deprived us of the advantages resulting from the possession of Bechuanaland. From Lake Ngami there runs southward the Botletle River which cuts the 25th meridian east at Sittitواني's Drift, not more than 165 miles from Palatswie, the capital of Khama's country and on the direct route from the Cape to Matabeleland. From Palatswie eastward to the Transvaal is less than 65 miles. To Ngamiland the Germans laid claim. If we had given way to them and surrendered it, as many feared, we might have had serious consequences to face. Assuming the Germans in possession of Lake Ngami, a not improbable contingency would be the formation of an alliance with the South African Republic. Germany could then, in the event of war with Britain, forward men and supplies by the Botletle River to Sittitواني's Drift, which she

could fortify and hold. While she would thus be threatening the left of our route northwards the Transvaal would be threatening our right. Fortunately the British Government finally refused to surrender Ngamiland.

While the British South African Company was empire-building in the west, the Imperial British East African Company was similarly employed in the east. The activity of the Germans in the region of Zanzibar has been already noticed. At length the Sultan became alarmed and decided to call in the British. As a result of his offer of a concession to Sir M. Mackinnon the British East African Company was formed, obtaining its charter in 1888. The district over which its influence at first extended was a strip along the coast from the River Umba to the River Juba, the intervening territory between Kismayu and Kipini came under the control of the Company at a later date. In the years which followed the Germans, "from clearing a few acres for the planting of tobacco" (to quote the words of Mr. Stanley), crept over East Africa till they had absorbed 600,000 square miles. As in South Africa, they were plotting to confine the British to the coast strip and to secure for themselves the vast hinterland which included the important States of Uganda and Unyoro. At length they advanced a claim to one-third of the 150,000 square miles in the possession of the English, the other two-thirds being desert. Many people feared we should surrender it. But the Anglo-German agreement of 1890 was a masterpiece of statesmanship, by which England not only retained the 150,000 square miles already in her possession, but acquired 500,000 in addition, including Uganda, Unyoro, and their vassal States. The Germans surrendered Witu on the coast, and, in return for the cession of Heligoland, all claim to authority in Zanzibar. The trade route from the coast to the interior was secured by the acquisition of Witu, also that to the Nile and all the countries in the region of its source. At the time the cession of Heligoland was considered a cheap price to pay for Zanzibar, and the treaty was generally acclaimed. "God has enlightened your Premier with wisdom and understanding," said Mr. Stanley of its author, Lord Salisbury.

It remains to be seen how the Dutch Republics aided the Germans in their attempts to limit the northward expansion of the British. The policy adopted by the Boers was to extend in two directions, northwards to the Germans, eastwards to the sea. The movement in the first direction was soon checked by the British annexation of Bechuanaland. To obtain access to the sea the Germans and Dutch commenced intriguing in the coast districts marked on the map Pondoland, Amatongaland, Zululand. The policy which Britain had pursued with regard to the

Zulus had not been one to inspire confidence or win regard. Their consequent discontent supplied the Germans with material for intrigue; but before it could lead to anything the British annexed St. Lucia Bay and so checkmated all the German and Dutch moves in this quarter. The Boers then turned their eyes in another direction, towards Delagoa Bay, the nearest and most natural port for the Transvaal. The consequence was the construction in 1887, at the instigation of Germany, of the railway from Pretoria to Delagoa Bay. This formed part of a scheme to make Delagoa Bay supplant the ports of British South Africa and to secure for Germany, at the expense of England, the monopoly of the trade of South Africa. The connection established with Europe by means of the railway combined with the discovery of gold in the Transvaal were events destined to have a determining influence on South African history.

The South African history of the last quarter of the century culminated in the war of 1899-1902, which was one of the four events that have largely determined its course. The other three were the trek of the Cape Dutch, occasioned by the Act abolishing slavery, the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West, which led to a change in the policy pursued with regard to the country north of the Orange River, and the discovery of gold in the Transvaal, which largely increased the importance of that State. Everything seemed to conspire together in a manner that was tragical to widen the existing breach between the British and Boers. Johannesburg's newly discovered gold provided the Transvaal with the means of realising the hitherto unattainable ambition of military power. The importation of arms and ammunition from Europe was rendered possible by the railway to Delagoa Bay. Kruger and his advisers overrated the wealth and power which had so recently come to them and to which they were completely unaccustomed. These things seemed to have turned their heads, and inspired in them the belief that their nation was a match for Britain, for whom they still entertained the contempt to which the tradition of Majuba had given rise. It was not long before circumstances afforded the opportunity coveted by those who desired nothing better than to provoke a conflict. On the discovery of gold at Johannesburg numbers of foreigners, among whom Britishers predominated, had flocked thither. The Kruger oligarchy were too jealous of their recently acquired power to share it with these Uitlanders. Remonstrances were unheeded, and the South African War followed.

The issue at stake in the South African War was not the question of British or Dutch supremacy, although this was the

belief of most people. Another and greater power was behind the action of the Dutch on that as on many previous occasions. The central fact of the history of the last quarter of the nineteenth century was Germany's attempt to become supreme in South Africa. The ambition of the Germans was the same as that of the French in North America in the eighteenth century ; but the latter were open in their hostility and rivalry, the former secret and underhand. The Germans managed to impose on the English and even the Dutch themselves the deception that the Dutch and not the Germans were the true enemies and rivals of Britain. They used the Boers as pawns, fomenting their animosity towards England, and supplying them with arms and ammunition and instructors in the arts of war. They openly manifested their sympathy with the Dutch while the war was in progress, for they shared the Boer opinion regarding England's " contemptible little army." This war was really the culmination of the struggle for supremacy in which the Dutch fought Germany's battles for her. In the event of a Boer victory it would have been the Kaiser's land which would have appropriated the fruits of the victory and realised the ideal of the " Greater German Empire " exposed in General Botha's discovery.

Although the result of the South African War was the defeat of one German attempt at supremacy, it left the Germans in the west and east free to make others when opportunities should arise. Meanwhile they continued to work in subterranean fashion, to intrigue and sow sedition among the disaffected Dutch. The menace they presented to the peace and security of the colonies has been removed by General Botha's splendid victory, which holds out the hope that a new era is about to dawn for South Africa when the clouds which the late rebellion left on the political horizon shall have been dispersed, and that the poet's vision may be realised at some time not very far distant :

Perish the feuds that mar and clash !
Let this new nation rise,
Unfettered as the summer flash
In Afric's midnight skies ;
Breathing the wind that sweeps at will
This great blue southern dome,
Fearless of war, yet keener still
To bridge the drift, and mine the hill,
And lead the harvest home.

D. A. E. VEAL.

THE FEDERATION OF THE EMPIRE

I.

MANY years have passed since as a comparatively young man I first advocated the idea of Empire Federation. Much has happened since then, but with all the changes that have taken place I look in vain for any real forward movement in the direction of a unified and completely formed Empire. We have still the same vague enthusiasm produced by big words about "The British Empire," but when we try to focus this to a definition, there arises the long familiar barrier suggested in the words "The Colonies," as marking off and differentiating the Empire into distinct—superior and inferior—parts; though some of these in recent days have been dignified by the title of Dominions. But as to the growth of a true Imperial feeling—in Great Britain—there seems to be none.

Had Joseph Chamberlain lived in the plenitude of his mental and physical energy, I believe something would have been done ere this to bring Imperial Federation into the realm of practical politics. He was one who had much of the broad Imperial spirit in him, and his retirement from political life left the question to languish at a time when it needed vivifying force. Of this growth in the Colonies—Canada for instance which I particularly know—there is unmistakable evidence, and the different point of view of Imperial matters of a Canadian, as compared with the untravelled Englishman, is very marked and very apparent. Though this question of Imperial Federation shows no signs of growing appreciation in Great Britain, there never was a time when it was more necessary to consider it, and to me it seems now that the time is approaching when the alternative of Federation or Separation will undoubtedly be forced on this country as practical issues. I do not say that at once every part of the Empire should have a voice through elected representatives in the supreme chamber of the Empire, but the ultimate goal to be reached by every part, as it grows in wealth and importance, and develops in Government by elected representatives, should be representation in the Imperial Parliament.

In present circumstances the House of Lords and the House

of Commons constitutes the Supreme Parliament of the Empire, but in neither House is official representation given to any part of the Empire outside the British Isles; and yet the whole government of the Empire is concentrated in these two Chambers: while of recent years by party chicanery, the actual government has been more and more gathered to the House of Commons. But is this House animated by a broad Imperial spirit? Do we find that great Imperial questions are there dealt with carefully and thoroughly, and local questions relegated to a minor position, given only the attention they deserve? Do we find that when Imperial questions are under discussion that a crowded House listens with rapt attention to the debates and discussions of its leaders, and its most eminent members. Is the best the nation can give concentrated upon the great questions of Imperial life and progress? Not at all. In fact quite the reverse. The most engrossing matters that come before the House of Commons are those of a purely local nature, in which the rest of the Empire is but very remotely interested. Questions such as the early closing of public houses (I am referring now to normal, not war times), old-age pensions, workmen's insurance, education, meals for school children, and so on, are those upon which the greatest energy of the House is evoked, the most brilliant debating power of the Members developed. These matters, under a properly constituted Federal system, would be relegated to the local house of the particular part of the Empire to which they referred. They would have no place in a truly Imperial Parliament. On the other hand questions such as that of trade between the various parts of the Empire, the control and direction of emigration, the development of distant parts of the Empire, attract but little notice and fail altogether to secure a full dress debate. And the same may be said until recent years as to questions of Imperial Defence. The reason is not far to seek, their discussion brings no strong support to the Government of the day, and threatens no weakening of its position.

How can such a Parliament, concerned with such purely local matters possibly be, or become, the supreme Parliament of a great Empire? How can the opinion of those great parts of the Empire outside of the British Isles find expression, or how can proper weight be given to their advice in such a gathering? There is no representation of the outlying parts of the Empire, and therefore no possibility of the wishes and needs of these parts having any power to affect the decisions of the House. Even the ideas or arguments of the Colonial Secretary are merely the ideas and arguments of an individual; his vote must necessarily be in accord with the British constituency that he represents.

Consider too the position of the Government of the day; the

supreme governing body, that is, of the whole Empire. Its existence often depends upon the successful handling of some purely local question : a question that may be, and frequently is of quite insignificant value to the rest of the Empire. But to such a question as this on which the existence of the Government, as a Government, depends, the whole strength and political acumen of each of its members must be focussed. All the power of debate and argument must be centred on these and similar matters, and the attention of the Government necessarily diverted from great Imperial affairs. Governments are made or broken over matters that are in no sense Imperial. Can such a body as this, subject to destruction from the local storms that rage in the British Isles, be in any sense sufficiently broad-based and secure to be able to deal with great questions of Empire ? A measure dealing with the privileges of Trade Unions is more vital to its existence than any large Imperial matter ; the angry threatenings of a Trades Union with no deeper patriotism than a desire to increase the wages of its members have more effect on the course of legislation than the opinions or needs of a vast country such as Canada. Can such a Government ever be or become the Imperial Government in a real sense ?

Consider the matter as it presents itself to a citizen of the Empire living in Canada ; and what I am about to say of Canada applies also to the great Dominions of Australasia and South Africa. The Dominion of Canada is in itself a vast Empire stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and northwards to the Pole. The mileage from ocean to ocean is roughly about 3,000. The older provinces which only some fifty years ago were separate entities, are Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia. So long as these provinces were unimportant their political life continued side by side without special or great difficulties. But as they grew difficulties arose. Inter-communication increased with the growth of facilities for travel, and matters for legislation arose, that, in being legislated upon, inevitably affected areas beyond the province in which the legislation originated. "Conferences" failed to solve such difficulties, for the very reason that Conferences are not truly in accord with the principle of Government by representatives of the people, and friction and clash inevitably resulted. The outcome was that the scheme of Confederation was propounded, by which one supreme Parliament should be formed dealing only with matters in which the whole of Canada was interested, while to the local legislatures of each province should be delegated the local matters proper to each province, there to be legislated upon by the legislatures of the locality.

In 1867, under the British North America Act, Confederation was established, and it says much for the political genius of the British Parliament and the "Fathers of Confederation" in Canada, as they were called, that this Act was so wisely and well drawn that scarcely an amendment has been needed in it.

And there was no other sensible and practical method of composing the differences but to form a Confederation under one supreme Parliament. The political intelligence of the various parties to the scheme saw clearly that to attempt to make any one of the various local legislatures the chief Parliament for the whole of Canada would immediately lead to greater friction than it removed. For why should the other provinces have any voice in the local affairs of the one province selected as chief; or why should the other provinces submit to the intolerable inconvenience of having its chief government turned out upon some local provincial question in which they were in no way interested? Clearly the only logical and reasonable method—so long as Representative Government remained—was that the Supreme Parliament should be set above and outside all local affairs, and should be composed of representative men from all the provinces, in due proportion, while each province should carry on its own local legislative affairs.

And this principle is so sound and so absolutely logical that it has been applied in turn to the great Dominions of Australasia and South Africa, where Federal Union has been adopted. The amazing thing is, that this sound and logical principle has not yet been adopted for the great Empire itself, and the local Parliament of Great Britain still continues as the Imperial Parliament of the British Empire.

In Canada not all the provinces that I have mentioned joined the Confederation in 1867. Prince Edward Island came in in 1873, and British Columbia in 1871. Since 1867, too, as the great north-west prairie lands of Canada have been opened up and peopled, upon the formation of new provinces there, these have been endowed with their local government and have received their due representation in the Dominion Parliament. Manitoba, Alberta and Saskatchewan have been added, and Yukon is developing in the same direction. Under the Federal system as exemplified in Canada, the taking in of additional countries, or communities, is a thing easily done, and without jar or strain to the legislative machinery. Newfoundland could easily be joined on, if wished, by simply adding the proper quota of members to the Dominion House of Commons, and the due number of senators to the Senate, leaving to Newfoundland itself its local legislature to carry on its local affairs; the same with the West Indies. Indeed, the Canadian system is one

which is capable of expansion so as to embrace an Empire of any size, and is in verity an example of a system of governing that might be followed by the British Empire itself.

When the dweller in any of the great British Dominions realises and understands the system of government under which he lives, and sees how suitable it is for the government of a great Empire, it is but natural that he should ask himself why is not a similar system adopted for the government of the British Empire? "If my country," he may say, "is part of the British Empire, why should I not have a voice and representation in the government of the Empire? I recognise that it would be unwise and unjust to shut out and debar any province in my country from a share in the general government, so on what theory of justice and fair dealing should I and my country be excluded from a just share in the general government of the Empire? We have to bear part of the burden, as the present great war shows, and why should we have no voice? True, we do not pay directly to the general support of the Empire (though we are willing by arrangement to do so), but we have to maintain all the heavy expense of war for the benefit of the Empire, and to do this ourselves, when it is quite certain that the work could be more efficiently done, and at less cost, if it were carried on under one general direction."

And the dweller in the Dominion of Canada sees not only in his own country a complete Federal system satisfactorily at work, by which all local rights are properly conserved, but if he looks to the south of him he also sees a large country, where the local legislatures carry on the local affairs of the various communities, while the general and supreme interests of the whole country are controlled by a congress in which all parts of the country have their due representation. It is only when he looks to the centre of his own Empire that he finds the principle of Government by representatives neither recognised nor adopted. He finds that he is debarred from any share in the government of the Empire to which he belongs, that the Imperial Parliament that carries on this Government, is in fact the local Parliament for the British Isles, and that its time and attention is largely occupied with matters that to him are small and unimportant; much as the provincial legislatures of his own land are occupied; and he sees also that for his country to send representatives to such a Parliament in the hope of being able to deal with the great affairs of the Empire, would be as unreasonable as to try to make the local legislatures of one of his provinces the chief Parliament for his country.

GRANVILLE C. CUNNINGHAM.

(To be continued)

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

ONTARIO manufacturers are to be "mobilised" to assist in caring for returned soldiers. A committee, appointed by the Ontario Government to co-operate with the Dominion Hospitals Commission in this work, is now discussing methods of securing employment for returned men, and training those whose wounds and impaired physical condition unfit them for the avocations previously followed. The most important point agreed upon is that the manufacturers of the province should be invited to assist by giving preference in employment to men who have served their country at the front. Local committees, which will be formed, will be encouraged to work with local manufacturers and secure positions for returned soldiers. Where a soldier returns to a municipality or district that cannot find a place for him, the Provincial Committee will be called upon to locate the man in some other part of the province where there is an opening. The city of Calgary has also opened a Returned Soldiers' Labour Bureau. One of the returned veterans has been appointed as Secretary. Numerous applications have already been received from employers, and it is expected that all the men who have already returned will shortly be given employment.

MAJOR-GENERAL SIR SAM HUGHES recently announced that arrangements had been made to provide the fighting men of the Dominion with Canadian fish, which will probably form an article of the soldier's diet twice a week. The fish will be landed in England and distributed under the supervision of Major Green, of Saskatoon. Mr. Hazen, Minister of Marine and Fisheries, has promised the co-operation of his department in arranging for the shipping and distribution of the fish from the Canadian end. Canada possesses the most extensive fisheries in the world, with a total catch valued last year at over £6,600,000; more than 100,000 men are employed in the industry.

ABOUT 170 aviation students, who have been trained at Toronto, have been selected to join the British Aviation Corps. These men, who have received training in flying or infantry or other work, and were primarily chosen by Major A. Ross Hume, representative of the Royal Aviation Corps, will be recommended for certificates as lieutenants, and when approved by the Militia Department, Ottawa, will proceed to England to qualify with the British flyers. The Toronto Air Training School has been established less than one year, and the satisfactory results obtained amply demonstrate the success of the training system in force.

THE war having cut off the German supply of chemicals and drugs, prospecting is taking place over the mining districts of British Columbia with a view to the possibility that raw material for certain of the articles that have thus been interfered with may be procured through this source. It is regarded as very probable that Western Canada will be able to make good at least part of the deficiency created by the war.

THE Windsor (Ontario) City Council has decided to renew insurance on all men of that city who are serving with the first contingent and who have relatives depending on them. The Council will also extend insurance to all other Windsor Volunteers now in training or who may enlist to the end of the war.

SOUTH AFRICA

THE Department of Agriculture under the new scheme which was recently inaugurated has arranged to issue monthly reports regarding crop prospects throughout the Union. The reports so far issued embrace only wheat, oats, barley, and fruit. It is estimated that there will be a short fall compared with last year in both wheat and barley, amounting in the case of the former to about 5 per cent. The oat crop, on the other hand, is expected to exceed that of last year, which was very poor. Fruit promises well in those districts in which its cultivation is an important factor. Good rains have fallen recently in nearly all parts of the Union, breaking the disastrous drought which has existed for some time. The rains have come at a most opportune time, and it is anticipated that, as a consequence, the maize crop will be a large one.

AT the sale of Government stock at the School of Agriculture, Potchefstroom, recently, it was noticeable that beef-producing stock was in great demand. In the Hereford and Sussex classes some good prices were paid, the highest price being £85. The average price paid for Herefords was £76, as against £67 in 1914 and 1913, and the average for bulls of the Sussex breed was £68, as against £31 last year.

ONE of the results of the war has been to give a decided impetus to poultry-breeding in South Africa. In 1913 the value of eggs imported was £77,000. In 1914 this figure was reduced to £59,000, while for the nine months ended September 30, 1915, the value was only £19,218. Meanwhile, the export figures had gone up from £8,500 in 1913 to £11,000 in 1914, and for the nine months of the present year the figure was £8,500, compared with £5,800 during the corresponding period of last year. But for the lack of freight space it is thought that the export of eggs during the present year would have been much larger.

THE Directors of the principal Diamond Companies in South Africa have decided to resume work at their mines from January 1, 1916. The operations will naturally be only on a limited scale.

NEW ZEALAND

THE enthusiasm of New Zealanders in the back-blocks and the towns to do all they can to augment patriotic funds seems in no wise abated in spite of the constant calls on their generosity. In a small up-country town recently no less than £1,005 was raised by one effort, a record even for New Zealand, since it represented something over £2 per head of the population of the town. A flag sold at Feilding, a not very large country town, for the benefit of the Wounded Soldiers' Fund, realised £8,250. The last purchaser presented the flag to the Borough Council.

A RECRUIT offered himself at Napier (New Zealand) only to be refused on the score of his bad teeth. The young man promptly had his mouth overhauled, and cheerfully paid a £10 bill to his dentist for making a fine job of it! To his intense disgust he was then turned down for being below the minimum chest measurement. Straight to a physical culturist he hied, and quickly got his chest swelled to the regulation width. A third time should bring luck, but no!—the medical examiner discovered that he had an overlapping toe. So to hospital next! He is there now, undergoing amputation of the offending member.

A VERY interesting work of art was carried out in London recently to the order of the first party of New Zealand soldiers convoyed to Egypt. This is a silver replica of an old Maori war canoe, with the tail and head pieces and full Maori decoration. The canoe stands on two blocks of greenstone, the base being formed of a fine piece of New Zealand black maire wood. It is a present to the Japanese captain in command of our Ally's warship "Ibuki," which helped to convoy the first party of New Zealanders to Egypt. By request of His Majesty the King this model was sent to Buckingham Palace for his inspection, and he has expressed great appreciation of and interest in the model canoe. So pleased were they with the courtesy and kindness of the captain that they decided to give him and his officers and men a memento of the occasion, and a considerable sum of money was collected in small amounts, every man of the Expedition contributing.

FROM Melbourne exchanges we learn that the Dunlop Rubber Company of Australasia has commenced to manufacture a special "Ford" tyre, and it is anticipated that the demand will be ahead of the supply for some time to come. The covers, which are intended to be used exclusively on Fords, are listed at the extremely low figure of £4. Tyres, although made on the spot, cost more in Australia than here. For three or four years the parent Dunlop Company has made a tyre for Fords and kindred American cars, 30×3, and sold it much cheaper. A steel-studded cover of this size (for front wheels) costs in the United Kingdom only 68s. 6d., grooved 49s. 3d., and plain 40s. 3d. For rear wheels the standard size is 30×3½ and the prices as follows: steel studded 85s., grooved 75s. 6d., and plain 61s. 6d. Australian owners of Fords are assured that they will be able to considerably reduce their outlay for upkeep.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

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PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW

I.

IMPERIAL CREDIT FOR IMPERIAL NEEDS.

At the beginning of the war our leading financiers, economists and others frequently referred to the wealth of Great Britain as if it was inexhaustible. They now sing to a different tune. Neither they nor anyone else foresaw what the cost of the war was going to be. Our national capital is perceptibly shrinking, as an iceberg shrinks when exposed to the glare of the sun. And we have become painfully conscious of the fact that a few years' expenditure at the present rate would land us in bankruptcy.

But it is not surprising that we should find ourselves almost overborne by the financial strain of the war. For that part of the Empire represented by the United Kingdom is doing more than its share and bearing the burden of the whole. It is far from my intention to imply that the other parts are not doing anything or to depreciate what they have done. That were indeed the basest ingratitude after the loyalty that they have displayed and the service that they have voluntarily rendered us. By the mouths of their leading men they have expressed their willingness to devote their last shilling and their last man to the cause of Britain; and what they have already done is an earnest of this. That they are not able to afford us even greater help is attributable to the defective organisation of the Empire, which provides no means whereby the oversea parts may share the Mother Country's responsibility for its security.

As matters stand the Dominions are under no legal obligation in regard to Imperial Defence. They are free to contribute to it

or not, as inclination prompts them. England cannot reckon on their aid. Some, like Australia and New Zealand may choose to make her presents of Dreadnoughts, others, Canada for instance, may wait and see. Sir Wilfrid Laurier showed up the irresponsibility of the Dominions in a rather startling manner, when, at the last Imperial Conference he claimed that it lay within the rights of Canada to remain at peace when Britain was at war. But the right has never been disputed, although it is due to the Dominions to admit that neither Canada nor any of the others has ever availed herself of it. On the present occasion they have raised contingents and financed them. But they are not responsible in conjunction with us for the general conduct of the war, for raising the men and money to bring it to a successful issue.

Yet, the interests of the Dominions are as directly and deeply concerned in the war as those of the Mother Country. Their security is dependent on the maintenance of her naval supremacy. The consequences of a German victory might be even more disastrous for them than for her. While it is possible Germany does not desire to annex Great Britain as a province we have proofs that such was her intention in regard to many parts of Greater Britain.

A few years ago there appeared an article in the *Review of Reviews* advocating the creation of what the author termed "Imperial Consols." Imperial credit should be established for Imperial needs. The money required for Imperial Defence, especially that branch of it represented by the Navy, should be borrowed on the authority of the whole Empire and not, as now, on that of the United Kingdom alone. It should constitute our premier security having the guarantee of the Empire behind it. This suggestion was made when we were at peace but could be adapted to our circumstances now that we are at war. In that case the war loans would have been raised on the responsibility and backed by the credit of the whole Empire, and the taxation to pay the interest on them would have been extended to all its provinces. There is no question of the ability of each to pay its share. Canada, unlike the United Kingdom, seems to have benefited financially, as well as commercially, from the war; the unfavourable trade balance of pre-war days has been converted into a favourable one; subscriptions to the recent War Loan have amounted to double the sum that was asked for; and the last report of the Bank of Montreal showed assets at a "record" level.

Let us pass on to the question of how the money could be raised. This brings to light other aspects of the problem of Imperial organisation. We are reminded of the close connection

between them, and experience the impossibility of considering a part of this problem by itself.

The subject of Colonial contribution to defence came up for discussion at the first Colonial Conference. Mr. Hofmeyr, who was at that time Premier of Cape Colony, advocated the imposition in every part of the Empire of a duty of two per cent. on all foreign imports, the revenue thus provided to form a Defence Fund. Such a means of raising revenue has much to commend it, but England's infatuation for Free Trade has hitherto blocked the way to its adoption. Her true interests, all the tendencies of the age, urge her to abandon the obsolete fiscal system to which she has clung as madly and as obstinately as a lover to his mistress. The war has already compelled her to make a slight departure from it. I doubt if we shall ever achieve closer Imperial Union unless we resolve to throw overboard this Jonah of our ship of Empire. How otherwise are we to compensate the colonies for their assumption of the Imperial burden, which will mean pecuniary loss to them? We cannot expect all the sacrifice to be on one side; but all that is required from us is a sacrifice of principle; that we should abandon Free Trade and give Colonial products a preference in our markets. By such an arrangement our material interests would benefit as greatly as would theirs.

There is a third aspect of the problem of Imperial organisation to be considered. If Britain wishes her colonies to be her partners in her duties and responsibilities she must share with them her privileges. She must call them to her councils. If the present arrangement is unjust to the British Isles by imposing on them the whole burden of the Empire, it is no more just to the oversea parts who are subjected to the inconveniences, risks, and even perils of a policy in which they had no voice. The present war affords us a striking example of this. Many people think that a blunder was committed in sending an expedition to the Dardanelles. Assume for the sake of our argument that this view is the correct one. New Zealand and Australia were in no way implicated in this blunder, if it was one, in which thousands of their citizens were slain. In such circumstances must it not be a temptation to censure those who are responsible? The existing relations of the different parts of the Empire are full of such possibilities of friction and peril.

There is a story of someone who, on visiting a certain village and complaining of the defectiveness of its drains, was told that he was mistaken as it had no drains. So it is with the British Empire; its organisation is not defective but non-existent. It is just as it has grown up. No attempt has ever been made to frame or pursue in regard to it a definite and considered policy;

to define or fix the mutual relations of its parts. Everything has been left to chance; but will not be for much longer. Violent and overpowering waves of circumstance are sweeping the Empire on to the crisis of its fate; to the parting of the ways, where it will have to definitely choose once for all whether to take the road that leads to closer union or that which leads to dissolution.

II.

FACTS IGNORED BY FREE TRADERS.

Free Traders are nearly always democrats. There is one fundamental difference, among many, between the representative democrat and the representative conservative. The one is more influenced by theories and abstractions, the other by facts and realities. The democrat indulges in long chains of deductive reasoning, neglecting to correct and verify each step by an appeal to facts and experience. Thus it happens, when he attempts to put his theories into practice the result is very different from what his logical conclusions had led him to expect.

One of the facts ignored by the Free Trader is the fact of the nation. His beliefs are a part of the creed of cosmopolitanism, which holds that the world at large has a prior claim to our consideration over our own particular country, that charity should begin abroad and end at home. So the Free Trade party is drawn from that portion of the community where the patriotic sentiment is weakest. The opinions which it holds and the line of argument which it adopts suggest that the Free Trader is an unbeliever in the nation. He thinks national distinctions, like those of birth and rank, are merely superficial and accidents of circumstance and environment. They belong to the past, like superstition, belief in magic and witchcraft and such-like things, are prejudices out of which we shall grow in time when we have become better educated and more broad-minded.

During the period in English history when the star of the Manchester School was in the ascendant and this country was converted to Free Trade, national sentiment had sunk into a deep sleep which many mistook for the sleep of death. By the Free Traders it was interpreted as an evidence of their superiority to their forefathers, whose old patriotic prejudices they had outgrown. They were wrong in both suppositions. Patriotism was not dead in England but only sleeping. But supposing it showed symptoms of a decline, that should not be a matter for congratulation. Patriotism is as vital to the life of the State and to the civilisation which it is instrumental in building up and maintaining, as the mysterious something which abides in proto-

plasm is to the life of the individual body. Without it civilisation dies of itself as that of old Rome perished.

It is in times of peace and security that national sentiment is dormant. The feeling is that the country is safe and there is no need to worry about her. But the trumpet call of danger is potent to recall it to life; and then all other feelings and prejudices give way before it. Macaulay says of Chatham, "Whatever lowered her (his country) among the nations of the earth he felt as a personal outrage to himself." In times of national crisis most men feel like this. The enemies of their country are to them as their personal enemies, with whom it is impossible to hold any converse or have any dealings. Free Trade principles will not stand the strain of such an hour. Their exponents knowing this eliminated the nation and national sentiment from their scheme of things. But these are facts which will sooner or later obtrude themselves whether they will or no; and when this happens the whole edifice of Free Trade theory is borne down.

There have been many evidences of late that the majority of Englishmen are finding this out. Declarations in favour of Imperial Preference, commercial treaties with our Allies, and a retaliatory policy against Germany have come from the most unexpected quarters. The debate on Mr. Hewins' motion in the House of Commons on January 10, Mr. Runciman's speech in particular, well illustrated the changed attitude of the House to this question. The recommendations recently published of the sub-committee of the Advisory Committee of the Board of Trade on commercial relations, and the resolutions passed at the gathering of influential business men at the Guildhall on January 31 throw much interesting light on the views which the commercial world is coming to entertain. But by far the most significant of the many indications showing the direction in which the wind is blowing is the repetition of the Free Trade Memorandum brought forward by the Board of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce at their Annual Meeting on February 14. In fact it is not too much to say that a state of mind has been produced which spells doom to a policy of Free Imports. For it is the corner-stone of Free Trade that you must not discriminate in your treatment between your own colonists and aliens, friends and foes; but treat all alike, admitting the products of all on the same terms.

The Protectionist, on the other hand, bases his policy on national sentiment. "To understand the position taken up by the modern opponents of Free Trade," said the Free Trade Bastable, "it is above all essential to recognise that the keynote of their system is nationality." Its chief recommendation to

them is that it promises to safeguard and advance their country's interests. That party in the State that is most decidedly national in its aims and policy is always Protectionist. A decline in the fortunes of the Free Trade cause has nearly always coincided everywhere with a growth in national sentiment. The great statesmen of modern times who have been associated with strong national policies — Cromwell, Chatham, Alexander Hamilton, Napoleon, Disraeli, Bismarck, Rhodes and Chamberlain—were all Protectionists.

The Free Trader is led on from one false step in reasoning to another. When Great Britain adopted Free Trade she occupied the position of pre-eminence in commerce and manufactures to which she had attained under Protection. The Cobdenites assumed that if this country was satisfied with the existing state of things, other countries must be satisfied too, so if England forebore to defend the position she had gained they would put forth no efforts to make up lost ground and take it from her. "Great Britain is and will remain," said Cobden, "the workshop of the world." But here the fact of national sentiment which they had overlooked came in and upset their theories in their application.

The other nations were not slow to seize the opening which England was giving them, and commenced and continued a vigorous war on English trade. They fostered their own industries by means of tariffs and bounties, and captured one after another of our industries. With retaliation and protection this country had thrown away the only means of bargaining with or defending herself against them. She watched her commercial supremacy rapidly slipping away from her. Let me give but one instance. Iron is one of our staple industries. In 1880 the production of iron in Germany was 3,200,000 tons, in 1910 it had risen to 14,800,000 tons. In the United Kingdom the production of iron in 1880 was 7,700,000 tons, more than double that in Germany, but in 1908 it had only risen to 9,000,000 tons, having been exceeded by that in Germany.

Germany has been conspicuous among the nations for her aggressiveness in trade. In the pursuit of her ambitions trade has played a part hardly second in importance to that played by her army and navy. Her traders are the vanguard of the attacking host. With the Germans trade has not been an end in itself but a means of national aggrandisement. They had the wisdom to know what we have since discovered, the dependence of military success in modern warfare on economic conditions. As the artillery bombardment which destroys the enemy's defences is the necessary preliminary to a modern battle, so the tariff war which Germany waged against the trade of her rivals, by undermining and weakening their economic and financial systems,

prepared the way for the other kind of war which she was designing against them in the future. Trade was often made to serve yet another purpose, to aid and abet the Secret Intelligence Department. German traders played the part of the reconnoitring party which goes out to discover all it can about the enemy before the engagement commences. That innocent-looking spectacled German gentleman, engaged in the useful and profitable pursuit of trade, is all the time taking note of the situation and condition of your dockyards, railway stations and telegraph offices. Often he is busy intriguing to set class against class, employed against employer, party against party. The Free Trader never dreamed in his wildest dreams of trade being made to serve such purposes. Cobden urged England to adopt the system of Free Imports in the belief that other nations would speedily follow her example. "You might as well tell me that the sun will not rise to-morrow," he said, "as tell me that foreign nations will not adopt Free Trade in less than ten years from now." If Cobden had been alive to-day and seen how differently things had turned out from what he had expected even he might have lost faith in Free Trade.

The war which for years Germany has been carrying on against our trade was the first phase of the great struggle of which the war now proceeding on many battlefields and seas is another phase. If it is sound policy to resist when attacked in the one case, why should we adopt an attitude of non-resistance in the other? There was a close association between the early Free Traders and pacificism. They belonged to the Manchester School which became notorious for its peace-at-any-price opinions. A scathing indictment of them appears in 'Shirley,' where Charlotte Bronte says that, during the French war, they would have handed to Napoleon their cloak, coat, and even waistcoat provided that he had let them keep their nether garment for the sake of the purse in its pocket. And in a poem, in which he urges that England should protest against the usurpation of the French throne by Napoleon III., Tennyson reminds the Government that,

We are not cotton-spinners all
But some love England and her honour yet.

Of the two chiefly instrumental in persuading England to adopt Free Trade, Bright was a Quaker and Cobden a pronounced pacifist.

Free Trade may be described as a part of the general doctrine of pacificism. England adopted it in the belief that the day had at last arrived when swords could safely be beaten into ploughshares. It was in 1846 that the Corn Laws were repealed.

Twenty-eight years before England's last great enemy and serious rival had been laid low on the field of Waterloo, and no fresh competitor had as yet arisen for the hegemony of the world. The international horizon was almost as cloudless as during the historic time when

No war, or battles' sound
Was heard the world around.

The belief was widespread, and shared by many eminent persons, including the Prince Consort, that the day of great European conflicts was over. In this connection the following quotation is of interest. It is taken from an article which Sir Garnet (afterwards Lord) Wolseley wrote in the *Nineteenth Century* in 1878.

The believing student of prophecy had better grounds in 1846 for anticipating an early advent of the Millennium than he has now. War on a great scale had come to be regarded rather as an historical horror than as a future possibility. . . . The more power was taken from the aristocracy and transferred to the people, the more it was thought trade would flourish and the spirit of warlike adventure and greed of conquest diminish.

The fact of war is another fact ignored by the Free Trader. For one nation to make a wanton and unprovoked attack on another was wicked and foolish. Men had grown too wise and virtuous to permit such a thing. So he argued. True, our own experience teaches us that men do often act wickedly and foolishly, and the history of mankind since the dawn of time is a repetition of nation rising against nation. But the Free Trader has all the democrat's scorn of the past and arrogant belief in the superiority of his own generation.

The Free Trader believed that if his advice was taken the result would be to promote amity and good feeling between nations, which would follow from the removal of restrictions on their commerce and intercourse. So the prospect of wars would be rendered still more remote. The events and course of European history during the last fifty years are a sufficient commentary on the unsoundness of such reasoning. But it seems to have impressed those in charge of England's destinies during the years that immediately preceded the outbreak of the present war. They told us we must not put import duties on German goods because Germany might not like it and might go to war with us. We did not dare to do to her what she was doing to us, thereby confessing that we were afraid of her, the surest way of tempting such a nation as Germany to attack us.

It is not wise to overlook the fact of war because it is not the normal, but an abnormal, condition of our life in this world. The lives of the nations are passed in the valley of its shadow,

and they know not when it may break forth and their national existence will be in peril of extinction. And this last is everything to them and should be their supreme consideration in determining policies. So the attitude to be adopted in peace should always be considered in the light of its effect on the security and well-being of the State in war. But this is a test under which Free Trade breaks down. Let me give but one instance. It is a favourite Free Trade maxim that each country should only produce those things for which its circumstances are peculiarly adapted, and leave those industries which cannot exist without State protection to perish of themselves. But among these last may be some which are vital to a nation's security in war. "Would you put England on a footing with a country which can be overrun in a campaign or starved out in a year?" asked Coleridge of those agitating for the Repeal of the Corn Laws. But we did not listen to him, allowed our agriculture to decline, and if our naval supremacy had been a little less complete than it has been proved to be, Germany might have starved England into surrender in six weeks. The dye industry is another instance—many others might be quoted—of an industry vital to our national security that was allowed to fall under foreign control.

Whether or not Free Trade would answer in the imaginary world of the philosopher might be an interesting subject for academic debate. But it is of no practical importance. The question for us is which is the best policy for a nation to adopt in the real world of strong national antagonisms and wars and tariffs. The reality of war is converting almost everyone to protection. "The dark and inevitable hour" is approaching when Disraeli predicted that his countrymen, their spirit softened by misfortune, "will recur to those principles which have made England great, and in our belief can alone keep her great. They may then remember those who, betrayed and deserted, were neither ashamed nor afraid to struggle for the good old cause—the cause with which are associated principles the most popular, sentiments the most national—the cause of labour, the cause of the people, the cause of England."

D. A. E. VEAL.

AT THE CROSS WAYS

WE are now at the cross ways. During this year will be decided along which road we are to go. One way is plain, simple, and easy. It is all downhill. It is the road of indifference, of postponement, of indefiniteness. The beginning of this road has the sign board "Wait and see." It can be taken in an easy slouch. Its terminus is disaster. The other road is more difficult. It has no such simple direction. It is the road of prescience and precaution, of skilful planning, of resolute endeavour, of constant effort. At its outset we must drop many a load of ancient prejudice, of ill-based and unsuitable doctrine, of party organisation and party intrigue, of official reticence, official bluster, and false official optimism. Its course is rough and unpaved. Custom has not lighted it. It is one continuous ascent. But its end is Victory. Which shall we take?

The decision rests in our hands. We may allow ourselves to be led by the utterances of false guides into the downward journey, or we may resolutely breast the upward path, pushing our leaders before us. If we decide on the upward path we must deal with each instance of official malfeasance as it arises. Now in the military sphere there are two matters on which the public have recently been most egregiously misled. These are the Balkan-cum-Gallipoli imbroglio and the Mesopotamia expedition. We have had Mr. Churchill's explanation and defence of his "legitimate gamble," but we have not yet had any real inquiry into either the genesis or the conduct of this abortive campaign.

As to the former there appeared in the *Morning Post* of January 11th a most remarkable letter, the assertions in which, if well based, fix a very great responsibility on the Government. In this letter, the writer claims to be in a position to state the case for Greece. After telling us that the Greeks considered the present state of affairs to be due entirely to the inefficient, if not stupid, diplomacy of the Allies and the obstinacy of those in authority in England, who insisted on prosecuting the Gallipoli

adventure in spite of the warnings of the Greek Staff, he goes on to say :—

The latter were well aware in the early part of 1915 that a secret arrangement existed between the Turks and the Bulgarians, a fact which was freely discussed amongst the Greek community in London, though how far Germany had committed itself to Bulgaria was not so well known here ; but that it was well understood in Athens is clear from the fact that owing to Bulgaria's military preparations Greece and Serbia, as early as February last, approached the Allies with the definite proposal that they, having agreed between themselves, should each send a force, consisting of 300,000 men in all, to invade Bulgaria. This combined attack was never proceeded with owing to the fact that no reply was ever received from the Allies ; the proposal was again made by the two Balkan States in April, and again met with no encouragement.

Proceeding with the story, we learn that when the Allied diplomacy became alarmed at the attitude of Bulgaria it coquetted with that country, and after much procrastination, made a definite offer of territory at the expense of Greece and Serbia. As the writer very truly observes, "the cession of territory, the richest part of Greece, so recently won at great cost, would have been hard to bear even if it had been 'compensated' for in other directions, but nothing would compensate the Greek nation for barring the road to Constantinople, the possession of which is the dream of every true Hellene." The final Greek contention, we are told, is that the King offered to join the Allied forces for an attack on Constantinople from the north-west, but would not listen for a moment to joining in an expedition to Gallipoli, as the Higher Staff had long formed the opinion that such a venture must end in failure, a view, according to the letter, fully shared by leading Greeks in London.

If this information be correct and these warnings were really uttered they must have been known to the Cabinet when its repeated predictions of overwhelming success were made. If the letter be false or ill-based, why has no rebutting or punitive action been taken against its author? Indeed, why was its publication permitted?

An inquiry into the conduct of the expedition has been refused. This would seem to be an injudicious refusal. It is essential to the success of military operations that responsibility should be fixed, the competent promoted regardless of age or influence, and all whose qualifications are inadequate to their duties promptly removed from authority. Two clear issues are involved : one between General Sir Ian Hamilton and General Stopford as to the local conduct of the operations ; the other between Sir Ian Hamilton and the War Office as to the adequacy of the support given. Someone has blundered, and blundered badly, and, if we accept Mr. Ashmead-Bartlett's view of the

conduct of the operations, at least three reputations are suffering from the evasive tactics pursued by the Cabinet.

Regarding Mesopotamia we had an assurance from the Prime Minister which, based on a faulty realisation of the position, was painfully misleading. As far back as November 2, he said :—

I would like to say two or three words on the important and highly successful campaign, which has not, I think, attracted the attention it deserves, namely, the proceedings of our troops in Mesopotamia. The object of the Expeditionary Force, which originally consisted of only one division, the Sixth, in the autumn of last year in Mesopotamia, was to secure the neutrality of the Arabs, to safeguard our interests in the Persian Gulf, to protect the oil fields, and generally to maintain the authority of our flag in the East. The history of what has taken place can be very easily summarised. In November last General Sir Arthur Barrett fought a battle with the Turks occupying Basra. In January a further advance was made, which resulted in the capture of Kurnah, a place which, as the House probably knows, lies at the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates. Two or three months later, in April, a second division was added to the force, and the command was assumed by Sir John Nixon.

After a brilliant series, an absolutely unchequered series, of land and river operations, the Turks were driven back both up the Euphrates and up the Tigris. In July their final positions on both rivers were captured, with heavy casualties, and General Nixon's force is now within a measurable distance of Baghdad. I do not think that in the whole course of the war there has been a series of operations more carefully contrived, more brilliantly conducted, and with a better prospect of final success.

Yet in a short space of time all was altered. The original British force had retired to Kut-el-Amara, there to be beleaguered by the Turks, while a relief expedition found itself hung up and unable to proceed. The most patient among us are beginning to demand two things, namely, that our expeditions should be well conceived and adequately manned, and that Ministers should cease to clothe their speeches with rhetoric, which however well intended gives an impression of optimism for which there is no justification. We can stand the truth however unpleasant it may be. History *does* repeat itself, and it is possible that as a race we are well-nigh unteachable or we should have profited by our past experience in war after war, in which our Government had displayed the same incapacity. The enterprise of the *Observer* has led it to publish from week to week a series of excerpts from Alison relating to the war against Napoleon. It is marvellous to see how we are repeating the blunders of 1811. *Mutatis mutandis* much of what was written of that period might have been written of the present day and the present administration.

The present situation is even worse than that of 1811, because this is a war of peoples, that was a war of armies. One vast difference between then and now is that then our Navy really was the one bulwark necessary to protect these actual islands from injury

at the hands of an enemy, now the Navy needs to be supplemented by an equally efficient air fleet. It is difficult to say what was the attitude of the rulers of our early ancestors towards the beginnings of our Navy. As far as we know, not being demagogues but *rulers*, they enthusiastically assisted the growth. In our own time we do know that the same men who tried to starve the Navy pooh-poohed the possibility of aerial fighting or aerial raid.

If we had led, as we might have done, in aerial matters we should have been in an overwhelming superiority for either offence or defence. The layman should hesitate to rush in with opinions where the expert fears to tread, and it is impossible to know exactly what is being done or remains to be done. We cannot, however, avoid feeling that the usual hesitance and lack of organisation are preventing us from sufficiently profiting by our latent capabilities of expansion. We want an aerial Admiralty with someone at its head who will scrap obsolete ideas and build us the air equivalents of Dreadnoughts and battle cruisers and will plan a "spider" strategy for their utilisation.

Just as we were misled as to munitions so in all probability we are being deceived as to air machines of every class. The "swarm of hornets" which according to Major, then Mr., Winston Churchill was to beat off aerial attacks from these islands has not been too conspicuous in its successes.* Where, too, are the fifteen airships which according to the same authority were built, building, and ordered? Are they guarding the palatial tuberculosis sanatoria which the author of the medical insurance programme assured us were to be scattered in such profusion over the country? Nor seemingly can the ascendancy of our airmen at the front in France, of which we have equally been assured, have been due to our superior machines. And has this ascendancy been allowed to effect anything of strategic importance as distinct from scouting and intelligence work? Have we a sufficient air fleet for the serious invasion of the districts behind the German front lines? If we have not why not, and is the defect going to be remedied? Are makers and inventors now receiving encouragement, or are they still being cold-shouldered by supercilious officials? These questions press for answer. That answer must be tangible fact and not mere glib assurance.

The Parliamentary debate has not thrown very much light on the position. Mr. Joynson Hicks read a letter, from a member now at the Front, which dealt a deadly blow at the "ascendancy" theory. This letter contained the deliberate assertion that the official reports from France "lie as to our mastery of the air." Mr. Tennant rather foolishly insinuated that there have been

* House of Commons, March 17, 1914.

endeavours to create a panic—a libel on his fellow-countrymen hotly resented by the House. Mr. Balfour made the startling admission that owing to our lack of foresight the Germans have ten years' start of us in air matters, and that the Navy is short of guns because the whole world could not now supply to us what German prescience had enabled our enemies to supply for themselves. There was no indication in any official speech of a real organised plan or of any definite responsibility attached to anyone. The whole theory of official responsibility was well summed up by Lord Sydenham in the House of Lords as an "ascending series of officials, each knowing less than the last, until one reached the deciding authority, who knew nothing at all. This was euphemistically called the *chain of responsibility*." The situation requires something more than the flabby excuses which formed the official contribution to the debate.

The necessary strategic plan for the three services should be based on the possible duration of the war for another two or three years. It should take into consideration the fact that Germany is an adept at concealment, that she may have many surprises in store for us by land, sea, and air; and our plans should be so laid as to enable us to have a few surprises ready for her. Instead of waiting for the enemy to show his hand, we should lead in artillery and in aircraft. We should maintain our lead in naval invention and construction. Above all we should co-ordinate harmoniously our efforts in the three elements. We must promptly disown our present Government's expressed willingness to discuss, after the war, the German suggestion as to "freedom of the seas." That would mean the end of our sea-power.

If in four months from now the nation does not see unmistakable signs of improvement in these respects it will know that we have taken the former road—the road to ruin. If we take the latter we have much to do ere our foe is worsted on all fields. Beaten on land, on sea, and in the air, he will yet have to be beaten in commerce and ostracised from social communion with civilised races. The great difference between the German and British Empires is that in the former the central authority orders and every German, wherever domiciled, promptly obeys, while in our own the people express wishes and the Government make excuses for not carrying them out. Germany is a bad neighbour, envious, covetous, unscrupulous, and treacherous. Her commercial and financial policy is part of her strategy. Like a canker she eats into the vitals of every State. Great Britain, France, Russia, Belgium, Italy, the United States, Australia, Canada: all are infected with the German taint. The cautery must be applied, and that cautery must be prepared now, even in the midst of this war.

Let us announce that we intend to cast out Germans and German goods, German finance and German financiers, German metal brokers and German shareholders. If there are legal obstacles let them be removed. We want no more forensic hair-splitting and legal casuistry but definite and effective action. Unless we clear the life current of our body politic from the German virus no victory in arms will assure us of freedom from intrigue and treachery in the coming years of peace.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

A NOTE FROM HONG KONG

IN his annual report on the Colony of Hong Kong the Colonial Secretary tells us that the outbreak of war with Germany and Austria, and later with Turkey, produced a novel and trying situation in which the entire community showed a most commendable spirit. Offers of assistance from all classes and races were tendered. Practically the whole of the British male population, and many Indians, Portuguese, and Chinese, not already enrolled, gave their services to the Volunteers, the Volunteer Reserves, and the Special Police Reserve, rendering possible a considerable reduction in the regular garrison for duty elsewhere. Before the end of the year £17,000 was remitted to the National Relief Fund. Various other funds for relief of Belgian refugees and for supply of tobacco and clothing to the troops were also instituted and liberally supported. The cost of the passages of a number of recruits for the Armies in England not only from the Colony but from other places in the Far East were defrayed by the Colonial Government. During the year seven local residents obtained commissions and thirty-seven enlisted. From outside the Colony two were selected for commissions and ten for enlistment. The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company granted favourable preferential rates for these passages.

MIGRATION WITHIN THE EMPIRE

PLEA FOR A JOINT SYSTEM OF LAND SETTLEMENT

IN this article I propose to deal with a matter touching alike the Motherland and the Dominions Oversea, that of population. Not population as it presents itself to the statistician, involving a study of difficult and abstruse questions of economy connected with numbers and vocations, but population as it relates to the movements of emigration and immigration, on which rest, to a very large extent, the development and defence of our common inheritance. No longer can we afford to regard these movements as separate entities. Henceforth they must be treated as parts of one and the same whole. On the recognition of this cardinal fact depend both our imperial progress and national security.

If, in days gone by, we had fostered our reserves of men by encouraging settlement within the Empire instead of allowing our surplus population to drift, at will, into the United States of America, how different would have been the situation to-day! The untilled lands of Canada and Australia would not now be crying aloud for the spade and the ploughshare, and the position of our colonial and foreign trade would have been completely reversed. Nor does the fault lie with any one political party. It is the result of mistakes on the part of successive administrations. Decade after decade witnessed the familiar sight of British stock pouring itself into a foreign State without let or hindrance of any kind. Ministry after Ministry came and went, but the policy of inactivity continued. Meanwhile tariff walls were being erected against us by men who might have become citizens of the Empire, while millions of square miles of British territory remained uncultivated and unoccupied.

True, of recent years, this stream has been checked, and the greater number of emigrants now remain under the British Flag. But what of the future? When peace is proclaimed emigration statistics, as was the case after the Boer War, will go up with a bound, and for a series of years the outward flow will increase rather than diminish. The question the Home and Dominion

Governments have to decide then is what steps are to be taken to attract these emigrants to Canada and Australia. In this connection I recall the resolution proposed at the Imperial Conference in 1907 by Mr. Deakin, then Prime Minister of the Australian Commonwealth. It ran thus: "That it is desirable to encourage British emigrants to proceed to British Colonies rather than to foreign countries." The resolution was passed unanimously, but so far nothing has been done to give practical effect to the suggestion it contained. Yet the matter is one of first importance not only to us as a nation but to us as a race.

It will be of no avail to shut the door after the horse is stolen, and that is why I urge consideration now, the time for action, long overdue, can no longer be postponed. We must have a joint policy of emigration and immigration. Let us not go back to the chaos and confusion that existed in pre-war days. The Downing Street policy of "wait-and-see" must be abandoned, the competitive arrangements of the oversea governments must disappear. In an Imperial cause, I use the word Imperial in its broadest sense, that of Empire, there is room neither for apathy nor jealousy. One end and one end only must be kept in view, the advancement and consolidation of the British Empire.

I have no doubt some critics will say, "Why discuss emigration now, surely after the war is ended we shall want every man we can get to work the land and to maintain home industries." Criticism of this kind reminds me of similar objections raised before the war to what was called the emigration of our "best," as if an Empire could be built up by "the halt, the maimed and the blind." It is some years since His Majesty the King, as Prince of Wales, when speaking at the Guildhall, referred to the importance of developing the outlying portions of our great estate, and reminded us that the one all-prevailing and all-pressing demand in the Dominions was "want of population." After referring to the advantages offered by the Dominions to settlers from the Old Country, His Majesty concluded by saying that the only condition made was that we should send "suitable" emigrants. The same situation prevails to-day as prevailed then. The same invitation is extended, and the same condition attached. If the policy of the British race is to be confined to considering the requirements of the British Isles alone then we must say good-bye to Empire. The one policy is not compatible with the other. If we are to think imperially we must act imperially. If we are to be Empire builders we cannot at the same time be "little Englanders."

No parts of the Empire have rendered greater service in the present war than Australia and Canada. In the various theatres of the campaign Canadians and Australians have fought nobly

and suffered severely. Are we then to grudge them when the conflict is over an influx of British settlers. The idea is as preposterous as it is ungenerous. Let the critics who talk about not having enough men to maintain home industries rest their souls in peace. We shall have enough and more than enough for the up-keep of the Homeland. Remember in this country we have something like 120,000 square miles of territory, inhabited, at the outbreak of war, by 45,000,000, or about 370 persons to the square mile; that Australia with its 3,000,000 square miles had barely 5,000,000 inhabitants or one and a half persons to the square mile, while Canada with territory extending over 3,700,000 square miles held only 7,500,000 people or roughly two persons to the square mile. Assuming then that each of these parts of the British Empire has suffered proportionately by the war, it is clear that Canada and Australia will require population far more than the Mother Country, and it is equally clear that it should be our duty and our privilege to make up that shortage as far as it is in our power to do so.

But it must not be implied that much as I am desirous of promoting migration within the Empire that I am advocating an emigration propaganda. Nothing of the kind. All I want to do is to impress upon the Governments concerned to make their preparations beforehand, so that when the time comes we may not revert to the chaos and confusion of pre-war days. Men who have been leading the lives of soldiers on active service for two years or more are not likely to settle down again easily to the ordinary routine of sedentary occupations. Many will desire to go to countries where life is freer and the demarcation line between the classes not so plainly marked as it is here, where also they can be sure of finding outdoor employment and look forward, if they work hard, to possessing a homestead of their own and to passing the eventide of life in ease and comfort. Others will wish to emigrate in order to save their children from tramping the streets or hanging about Labour Exchanges in search of work, which in their own cases often ended in the compulsory acceptance of blind-alley occupations that threw them back on the labour market in the prime of life often with wives and children to support. And in this connection it must not be forgotten that after the war there will be a heavy fall in wages without any corresponding fall in taxation.

Then we have the widows and orphans of men who have fallen in the war to consider. No doubt we shall be told these women have their pensions, and it is their duty to remain in the Old Country and bring up their children to follow in the footsteps of their fathers. But cannot these children follow in the footsteps of their fathers just as well in the Dominions as in the Motherland?

To my mind the Government should give every opportunity to these women of emigrating. Oversea they would find suitable occupations awaiting them and probably re-marry when their pensions would lapse, but each would receive a gratuity equal to two years' pay by way of dowry. Meanwhile their children would grow up in circumstances and under conditions more promising than would be possible in the great majority of cases if they remained here. Then we must remember that with the return of the men the women who have taken their places are bound by the terms of their agreement to surrender their posts. That work will be found for all women thus retrenched can hardly be expected, and it may be assumed that many of those thrown out of employment will migrate to the Dominions oversea.

The Dominions and the Motherland have united to crush a common enemy, to safeguard the cause of freedom, to uphold the cause of right against might. So let the Home and Dominion Governments join hands in formulating plans of settlement in this country, in Canada, in Australia, in South Africa, and in New Zealand whereby the families of men who have fought side by side on the battlefield may find congenial outdoor employment and build up a home for themselves on the land.

Imperial Labour Exchanges should also be established so that labour not required in the Motherland may be directed to openings in the Dominions. The Dominion officials would then correspond by cable with the representatives of their Governments in London, who, in turn, would make known the local requirements to the Board of Trade, leaving that Department to circulate the information in this country. A system of Imperial Labour Exchanges would remove much of the misunderstanding now existing in the labour mind as to the true meaning of Imperialism. With the new order of things, the voice that speaketh would not be that of a handful of Trade Unionists in one part of the Empire or a similar handful in another part, it would be the voice of Imperial labour, the voice of the Empire itself. Empire labour would succeed Home and Colonial labour, and an important and useful step taken towards the consummation of Imperial Federation.

THE EDITOR.

THE BANKING BAROMETER—SET FAIR

WHAT may be described as an exceedingly good and hopeful feature of recent banking news is the continued progressiveness of the banks in the establishment of new branches even in these abnormal times. The tapping of "fresh fields and pastures new" is naturally not confined to the banks of the British Empire, but they are at any rate well in the van notwithstanding existing circumstances, which might well have brought expansion to a standstill. That they are not deterred from new ventures speaks volumes for the determination of this country to keep our trade going at the highest pitch and to be prepared for the flood of competition that must inevitably prevail, at any rate for a time, after the war. A few actual details may be of interest to business men.

Not long after the successful termination of Botha's brilliant campaign in Germany's late colony in South West Africa, the National Bank of South Africa announced the opening of branches of their institution at Luderitzbucht, Windhuk and Keetmanshoop. This was a prompt and businesslike step and gives the necessary banking facilities to British traders to "start the ball" in that quarter of Germany's lost territory. The same bank has just opened a branch in New York, thus providing one more indication of the considerable commerce that passes between the United States and our Colonial Empire. The South African banks are already well represented in New York, and it will surprise no one shortly to see one or other of the Australasian banks establishing itself in the capital of the "States."

The Bank of British West Africa has been doing similar Empire work. At the last general meeting of shareholders the Chairman, Lord Milner, pointed out that branches had been established in Lome and Duala. "We felt," he said, "whatever be the future of Togoland and Cameroons, we ought to be represented at the chief ports of these territories, in order to offer banking facilities to the Administrations and to give assistance to such trade as now exists there or may presently be

developed." Branches have also been opened in Tangier and in Casa Blanca, "with a view to covering ground in a country doing a large business with the United Kingdom, and in which no other British bank is established." He felt confident that this new venture would ultimately be profitable, and trusted that it might assist in increasing British trade with a country capable of great development and comparatively near to our shores.

A well-informed article in the *Times* * foreshadowed a further development of banking facilities on the West African Coast where at present they are not so extensive as in East Africa. The writer states that there are indications that British traders mean to take advantage of the suspension of trade between Germany and West Africa. The Gold Coast alone exports 60,000 tons of cocoa per annum, which is now being sold on the London market at from £60 to £70 per ton. The trade is, however, at the moment hindered by the depletion of silver coinage.

To shift the scene to the Antipodes, the Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd., a month or two ago established a branch in Sydney, New South Wales, and it is safe to predict that it will meet with success. There is already a largely increasing volume of business passing between the Island Continent and Japan, and the establishment of a Japanese bank in Sydney should greatly facilitate matters for traders in both countries; its advent, so far as is known, has been welcomed by the native Australasian banking institutions.

An indication that Japanese finance is in good condition may be seen in the recent announcement that the Japanese Government have taken advantage of the low rates ruling on the stock markets to buy up, for redemption purposes, a large block of their own War Loan Stock issued during the Russo-Japanese War.

Coming to London circles, it is interesting to note the recent establishment of a London office of the Russian English Bank. This is a sign of the times and a healthy sign. There is little doubt that in Russia lies a big opportunity for the British merchant to secure the markets where formerly German business houses held full sway. Certain advantages which German traders allowed their Russian clients will have to be conceded by British merchants—particularly as regards longer credit than is usually allowed by British firms—but that change of attitude, I have no doubt, will be included in the more progressive trade view-point which is slowly but surely gaining ground in this country. Let us see to it that Allies in war are Allies in peace.

* December 6, 1915.

In passing, it may be mentioned that arrangements are being made for a branch of a New York bank—The National Bank of Commerce—to be opened in one or more Norwegian cities. Another American development is the plan, now in the process of consummation, for the establishment of a large bank with branch offices in Central and South America. This is a development that should be carefully watched. It means that the United States of America intend making a bold bid in South America for the trade formerly done by the chief Central European protagonist—Germany—and there is little need to say that they have already effected a start.

Sufficient has been said to show that the banks—not only here but throughout the world—are alive to present economic conditions. As surely as trade follows the flag, banks follow trade. Their function is not only to follow but to foster and assist commerce in every way possible by providing the necessary channels of finance; by even providing at times the financial resources requisite in essaying new markets. The problems we have encountered as a nation since the war have been many and so far they have been successfully surmounted; more difficult problems still may present themselves for settlement, and I doubt not that we shall overcome them in the same splendid way, for whatever criticism we have encountered during the war, internal and external, the chorus of praise for our financial measures is almost universal. The reason is largely co-operation between City and Governmental circles.

I have endeavoured to show that the banks are not viewing the outlook in any pessimistic spirit but are contemplating the future with confidence. To use an Americanism, it is up to our merchants and commercial men to see that we do not adopt any “balcony” altitude to the commerce that can be obtained by descending to the street below.

On the subject of trade after the war problems are many and intricate. What business men and firms should do is to have definite plans fixed for an enterprising campaign in countries where their particular products are likely to find a market—not necessarily a *ready* market. As to conditions after the war I may point out two things. England has always predominated in the profession of engineering. It is fairly safe to say that when hostilities cease there will only be two great nations left in the race, so far as engineering is concerned—ourselves and the United States of America. Our powers of organisation are perhaps not much to boast about, but our powers of improvisation are tremendous. No other country could have developed its engineering resources to such an extent in one short year to meet the ever pressing demands for war munitions of all and every kind

made on us, not only by our own requirements, but those of nearly all our Allies. Factories that in July 1914 made pins are making fuses; some that never turned out anything greater than a sporting cartridge are to-day turning out shells for the big guns—and similar instances might be multiplied by the score. Our skilled workmen are now vastly more skilled, and many entirely new factories have been built. I maintain, therefore, that our high rate of productivity now should carry us well into the "lean" period after the war. Who will rebuild the shattered towns, the broken bridges, destroyed factories, and replace machinery in regions devastated by the ravages of war? Let us see to it that Great Britain has the largest share. Another point that will leave its mark is the knowledge we are gaining in the exchange of essentials between ourselves and our Allies. We are finding "new markets for old," and more important still—is the experience we are gaining as to the needs of France, Russia and Italy, needs which we can best supply.

Finally if British merchants, though putting forth as much energy as possible in the output of war material, can keep the export trade at as nearly as possible full pressure, not only will the finances of this country be maintained in sound condition, but a deep and lasting impression will be made on neutral countries all the world over. Moreover, when the moment arrives we shall be able to meet successfully the mischievous propaganda which it is generally recognised Germany is preparing to launch on the commercial world.

W. E. CROZIER.

RADIUM IN ONTARIO.

INVESTIGATIONS by departmental geologists have resulted in the discovery of traces of radium in Ontario. Investigations and tests have been made in various parts of Quebec and the maritime provinces, without the discovery of radium-bearing ores, and tests in the majority of the areas visited in Ontario produced like results. In some cases, however, conditions were favourable, and the official report states that "it is gratifying to know that there are places in Ontario where this mineral exists." It is stated that in one area the concentrated rock gave a substance equal to 4 per cent. uranium oxide. Conditions in this area are said to warrant further prospecting.

THE FEDERATION OF THE EMPIRE (ii)*

ANY impartial observer must admit that the Government of India under British rule has been of enormous benefit to the natives themselves. Not only have their lives and property been made safer and more secure, but British capital has opened up the country by railways and improved the land by irrigation, while the application of the discoveries of Western science has reduced materially the virulence and destructive power of plague, pestilence and famine. Under such beneficent rule the life of the people goes on smoothly and in accord with their own ideas and aspirations.

But in this vast aggregation of peoples—numbering over 315,000,000—there is not, and never has been, the idea of Government by elected representatives, such as has for many generations been rooted, and has vigorously grown, in the Anglo-Saxon mind. In India the people have in times past always been governed—with more or less severity, or equity, according to individual caprice—by princes and rulers who have acquired power over them. A voice in their own government they have never had, nor have they claimed it. Self-government in India is a product of British rule, and has been slowly and tentatively introduced, but it must necessarily be a very long time, if ever, before the idea or practice of representative government attains the growth that it has reached in European countries. The “stagnant and unchanging East” does not offer the soil for the growth of schemes of self-government.

It is otherwise in the Colonies. As each colony grows in population and wealth, and while its latent resources are being developed and brought to fruition, the political status develops, following upon the lines of the British Constitution until we have the completed system as we see it in Canada, in the one Supreme Parliament over the aggregation of Confederated Provinces and Parliaments. In Canada, too, one sees the flexibility of the Federal idea in its capacity to embrace dissimilar national systems. Thus we have the French province

* The first part appeared in the February issue.

of Quebec, originally acquired by conquest, retaining officially the French language and its own laws (the Code Napoleon), and yet, together with the other Provinces, taking its place in the Supreme Dominion Parliament, and forming part of the Confederation. But with all this political development, a development that has proceeded *pari passu* in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, Canada and the other Dominions still remain, with regard to the Home Government, in a fiduciary position. Yet they have far outgrown the stage of nursing and motherly protection. Just as the provinces in Canada within their own sphere of government have attained the position that demands a share in the supreme government of their country, so the Dominions have attained that importance in population and trade where their interests require that they should have a voice in the conduct and control of Imperial affairs.

While they continue parts of the Empire, they are subject to all storms that assail the Empire. Their trade and commerce has become of world-wide importance, and is dependent in innumerable respects on the arrangement of treaties with foreign countries. Their national (I use the term advisedly) finance touches the world at innumerable points. In the supreme questions of war and Imperial defence their whole corporate life is deeply and gravely affected. Seeing then what these communities are, their political training, their ancestry, the ideas they have inherited, can it be argued with any show of reason that they should be expected to remain in the future as in the past, satisfied to have no share in the guidance of the supreme affairs of the Empire of which they are a part? Nay, more, can it be expected that they should be satisfied to see the supreme affairs of the Empire in the hands of a government trammelled by the local matters of one part, liable to be upset and turned out on issues in which the Empire at large has no interest? To me there seems to be but one answer to these questions. If the British Empire is to continue, it can only continue under a Federation of the Empire.

The desire for an Imperial Parliament in which the Dominions should be represented arises from various reasons. As a colony grows, until it becomes a Dominion, consisting of an aggregation of provinces, its trade and wealth grows. As these increase it becomes more and more of the nature of a separate nation, with regard to other nations of the world. The importance of its trade to its own citizens, in the first place, makes it necessary to consider and regulate its position with regard to the rest of the world; makes it necessary to consider the effect of treaties, tariffs, and trade restrictions. Now matters relating to treaties can only be dealt with, *qua* foreign countries, by an

Imperial Parliament. But the lack of representation in the supreme government prevents the Dominion from making its wishes known, prevents its arguments from being brought forward in free and open discussion, or weight being given to them by vote in the decisions of the Assembly. A Colonial Secretary in England in correspondence with the Government of Canada is not the form of representation that can be either acceptable or efficient for a self-governing people. It is no satisfying answer to be told that the Imperial Government will take care of the interests of Canada. Canada feels that, if she is part of the British Empire, she should have a direct voice in the conservation of those interests; she considers such an answer as little satisfactory as the Province of New Brunswick would, if Canada were to say to her, "You need not send representatives to the Dominion House; we will look after your interest there."

Again, when Canada looks to Great Britain she sees a country teeming with a population that is absolutely dependent on countries outside of herself for the necessities of life, and Canada knows that she has a vast surplus production of the very food products that England needs. Here then is the basis of a great trade between these two parts of the Empire; a trade that cannot be one-sided, but must be reciprocal; and naturally she desires to be in a position by her representatives to see that her great trade interests are conserved and developed within the Empire.

I do not propose to diverge here into an academic discussion upon trade questions, nor upon the value or wisdom of endeavouring to control, develop, or guide the flow of trade by legislation. But seeing that the central part of the Empire is absolutely dependent upon countries outside herself for the necessities of life, *a priori*, it would seem wise to consider the possibility of getting these necessities from members of her own family, as it were, rather than trust to foreign countries who may be friendly, and may not. If all the nations of the world were animated by ideas of universal peace and brotherhood; if they were all striving their utmost to develop the world's resources; to trade with each other on absolutely friendly terms; each in honest rivalry with the other; and all working together in harmony and goodwill then I would say it mattered not with whom you traded, so long as you got what you wanted on good commercial terms. But when the years 1914 and 1915 have revealed to us the existence about us and near to us of a very different state of national feeling, it behoves us most carefully to consider the safeguards that are primarily required for our National and Imperial existence.

While England had opened her gates freely to Germany—as

to every other nation—while she had engaged with her in friendly trade, in peaceful rivalry, giving to her the same opportunities for commerce in her great Eastern possessions that she gave to her own citizens; opening to her ships harbours everywhere as freely as to her own ships; buying from her her products and her manufactures with the same—and even greater readiness than she bought the products of her own countries; generously and splendidly unenvious of the great wealth that this free policy of hers was helping to accumulate in her neighbour's hands; working with her without a shadow of evil thought or a suspicion of malice; Germany, under a mask of friendliness, was building and developing a policy of hatred, rapine and murder. What to England was peaceful trade, was to Germany a means of gathering money to train armies and make munitions to destroy her "friend"; what in Britain's view were German ships of commerce, were in Germany's hands emissaries noting the capacities of harbours for war work, establishing bases for spies to gather and transmit information, making everywhere preparation for "the day" when the confiding "friend" might be robbed and destroyed, and the German people become masters of the British Empire.

Of what value as against such cunningly devised schemes was the obsolete trade maxim of Great Britain to "buy in the cheapest market?" What to us were cheap and well made goods, were to Germany the means by which she built up her nation; to prepare it for the world war to which she looked forward. But what Imperial wisdom was shown by Great Britain in developing the trade of a foreign (and enemy) country to the detriment of her own homeland and the entire neglect of her Empire? In her vast Imperial territory England could, if she so arranged, make herself independent of the rest of the world, but when Canada suggested a system of preferential trade within the Empire, by which the welfare of the Empire, as an Empire, would be made at least the first thought, she was told by the spokesman for the Government of the day, Mr. Winston Churchill, that the door was "banged, bolted, and barred" against the consideration of such questions. To think thus is not to think imperially, is not the line of thought that can ever result in the maintenance of a great Imperial unity.

If we had an Imperial Parliament in which the Empire was duly represented, who can doubt that such vital questions as these would be considered with intelligence and at least with sympathy? The maintenance and development of the Empire would necessarily be the first care of such a Parliament. The trade policy to be adopted would necessarily be regarded first from the standpoint of the beneficial effect it would have upon

the Empire; secondly, from the effect it would have upon other and possibly inimical countries, whether it would benefit them to a greater or less degree than it would benefit the Empire. An Imperial policy must not be guided solely by the consideration of buying in the cheapest market, but must be guided also—and to the chief degree—by the consideration of what is best to safeguard the Empire as a whole.

But such a Parliament must be composed of representatives from all self-governing parts of the Empire, composed of men who have knowledge of the needs and capacities of the various units. It cannot be at the same time the Local Parliament for a particular locality. It must be a Chamber above all Local Chambers; a Chamber in which the matters dealt with and voted upon are of wide Imperial interest. Local affairs should have no place in its deliberations. This view is so familiar to anyone having knowledge of the political systems of the Dominions and of the United States, that it would be almost unnecessary to labour the argument if it were not for the fact that to the greater number of people in Great Britain such an elementary political fact is not readily apparent, and that to them it comes as a surprise to learn that the Parliament at Westminster is, *qua* the Empire, the local Parliament of Great Britain.

Such a local Parliament can never be in anything but in name the Imperial Parliament. Lacking as it does representatives from the outlying parts of the Empire, it must lack also the Imperial feeling and the Imperial knowledge that only Imperial representation can give. The basis of its feeling and the springs of its action must continue to reside in the local affairs of the country it represents. There can be no escape from this. Naturally each representative looks to and considers the wishes of the constituency that he represents, and naturally this constituency considers the local affairs of the country of more importance to it than remote Imperial questions. A trades disputes Bill is worthy of the most careful consideration, whereas it matters nothing to Lancashire if the House is counted out for lack of a quorum over a Bill to regularise or control the Naturalisation of Foreigners by a Dominion Parliament. And this manner of viewing legislation will necessarily continue until a Parliament is formed in which all self-governing parts of the Empire are represented, until local affairs are relegated to Local Houses.

But it is not only that a Parliament for the Empire is required in order that Imperial affairs may be adequately dealt with therein by Imperial representatives, but that from it may be drawn or selected the Imperial Government. At present the Imperial

Government is composed of men drawn only from the British Parliament. It contains no representative of any other part of the Empire. But if the Imperial Government is to be truly Imperial it must be representative of the whole Empire; and under our constitutional system this can only be brought about by the formation of a Parliament on the lines I have suggested. It would seem almost an anachronism to introduce arguments to prove the necessity of representative government for British communities, if it were not that British statesmen and thinkers seem to have some constitutional difficulty in applying reasoning to the Empire that is unanswerable for the parts of the Empire. To my mind it seems certain that if the Empire is to continue the Imperial Parliament must be composed of elected representatives of the Empire; and the Imperial Government must be drawn from such a Parliament and not from the Parliament of one locality only.

Of late years the narrowness of view of the British Government in things Imperial has been painfully apparent to those living in the parts of the Empire outside Great Britain. There seems to have been, at the centre of the Empire, such a lamentable want of Imperial feeling, such a slackening in patriotism, such a growth of wrong-headed sentimentality, that has been made to do duty for stronger and manlier virtues, and such a loosening of grip upon the things that are necessary for Imperial life, that often one has despaired of ever seeing the British Empire take its place among the nations of the earth as a unified whole. There can be no doubt that the introduction of members from the Dominions to join members from Great Britain in forming a Parliamentary Chamber in London, would result in a House of far greater force and virility than any that has been seen here of recent years. To maintain a great Empire like that of Britain strength and determination must be shown. There must be a power to check and counteract secret undermining influences that are set to work by insidious enemies or traitorous "friends." There must be less of the *laissez faire* and "wait and see" policy, and more of clear-sighted planning and active co-operation, if this great Empire is to be what it should be.

After this war everything will be upon a vastly different basis from what it was before, and the changed financial condition will undoubtedly make the struggle for existence keener and more general. For that reason alone it is the more necessary that all parts of the Empire should draw closer together for mutual help and support. Let me conclude by quoting words recently uttered (January 1916) by Sir Robert Borden, the Premier of Canada, in a speech delivered in New York, when

he said: "Our Empire seems to us something greater than it was a year ago; when mighty armies from the Dominions and Dependencies arrayed themselves in its battle line, a new and impressive epoch in its history was marked. These pregnant events have already given birth to a new order. It is realised that the great policies and questions which concern and govern the issues of peace and war, cannot in future be assumed by the people of the British Islands alone." These words contain the kernel of the position. They voice not only the opinion of Canada but the opinion of every Dominion and Dependency throughout the British Empire.

GRANVILLE C. CUNNINGHAM.

A FAMOUS TORONTO REGIMENT.

THE Queen's Own Rifles of Canada, allied with "The Buffs" (East Kent Regiment), was organised under General Orders, 26th April, 1860, and never having undergone reorganisation, is now the oldest regiment in Canada. All the Queen's Own officers must rise from the ranks, and in this respect it stands alone in Canada. The London Scottish has the same requirements, as also have one or two other regiments in Great Britain. This is claimed to be a decided advantage, as the officers are well trained before taking commissions, and also older than is usually the case. The Queen's Own Regiment has furnished more officers to the Canadian Militia than any other regiment in Canada. It is said by officers returning from the front that at present more than 500 officers serving there have passed through its ranks. It furnished 37 officers and more than 1,000 men for the first contingent, and since the outbreak of the war has enlisted and sent about 6,000 men and 130 officers. The battalion now being formed under the name of "Queen's Own Rifles, 166th Overseas Battalion" will comprise another 40 officers and 1,100 men, and will be commanded by Lieut.-Col. R. G. Le Vesconte, who joined as a private in 1880, and has served continuously with the regiment ever since. He has passed through all the non-commissioned officers' ranks, and held every commissioned rank from lieutenant to lieutenant-colonel. Since its formation the regiment has seen service in the Fenian Raid, the North-West Rebellion and in South Africa. In the present war General Mercer has won a C.B. and General Rennie a D.S.O. The Military Cross has been won by Captains Heywood, Tidy, and Rogers, and the D.C.M. by Sergeants Adamson, Mote, and Spencer, Corporals Jones and Williamson, and Privates Bruno and Eastwood, while Sergeant Minns was mentioned in despatches by Field-Marshal Lord French.

BRITISH INDUSTRIES AND HOW TO EXTEND THEM

A GREAT deal of thought is being given at the present time to trade and its extension and improvement. The war is having a serious effect on the manufactures and commerce of all the countries of Europe. In France, Belgium, Russia, and Germany, the fighting is taking place in or near the chief manufacturing districts. Transport of goods is difficult, as the railways are needed by the military authorities, and the seas are unsafe for merchant ships. Most European nations are already finding a difficulty in obtaining goods, as so many factories have been destroyed or closed, and it seems likely that for the next few years the demand will be greater than the supply. As British industries have suffered least from the war, this seems a suitable time for increasing our manufactures and products generally, so that we may be able to meet the demand of the next few years.

The industries of France, Belgium, Russia, and Germany have been injured considerably by the war. The manufacturing districts of France are the North-East coalfield—which is continuous with that of Belgium—and the Rhone valley coalfield. Woollen and linen manufactures are carried on in the North-East district, and cotton manufacture in Normandy. Lille is the centre for all the industries of North France. Woollen goods are made at Roubaix, Tourcoing, Fourmies, and Amiens, linen at Lille, and Cambrai, and cotton at Rouen, and other towns in Normandy. Dunkirk is the port for this North-East industrial district and for the deep sea fishery of the Dogger Bank. The Champagne country is noted for its vineyards, and all North France for orchards and pasture.

Belgium has important manufactures. The North-East coalfield of France extends through a large part of Belgium, along the valleys of the Sambre and the Meuse, and coal is mined at Mons, Charleroi, and Liège. Iron and woollen manufactures are carried on on the Sambre and Meuse coalfield. Iron is found in Luxemburg and in the Belgian coal area, and is worked at Liège, Seraing and Namur. Belgium has rapidly come to the

front for iron and steel manufacture, and for the making of machinery and motor cars, and Liège is the centre of the industry. The woollen manufacture is in connection with the Ardennes sheep pastures. Verviers is the centre for woollen goods, and Brussels and Tournai make carpets. North Belgium has linen and cotton manufactures, as the finest flax in Europe is grown in the Lys district, and raw cotton is imported by Antwerp. Linen goods are made at Courtrai, Tournai, and Ghent, cotton at Ghent and Mons, and lace at Brussels and Mechlin.

Russia has three chief manufacturing areas—Poland, Moscow, and the Donetz district near the mouth of the Don. All these have coal, and make iron and steel goods and textiles. Poland is the most successful industrial district of Russia, and the most promising part of the country. It is chiefly forest land, rich in coal and iron. It has many manufactures, and the Vistula affords good communication. Warsaw is the old Polish capital and the chief town of Western Russia, Lodz is a busy manufacturing town which has sprung up since the coal and iron have been worked. Both these towns make cotton, woollen, and linen goods, and have iron and steel manufacture.

Germany has four chief industrial districts—Westphalia, Alsace-Lorraine, Saxony and Silesia. All these have coal, and they manufacture textiles and iron goods. The Lower Rhine coal-field of Westphalia and Rhineland is the chief manufacturing district of Germany, and makes iron, steel, cotton, woollen, and linen goods. Iron and steel industries are carried on at Essen, Dusseldorf, Cologne, Dortmund, and many other towns. The Krupp iron works at Essen are now making arms and ammunition for the war. Cotton goods are made at Elberfeld, Barmen, Dusseldorf, and Gladbach; woollen at Elberfeld, Barmen, and Aachen, and silk at Crefeld, Elberfeld, Barmen, and Cologne. Lorraine has iron works which supply the fortress of Metz, and Alsace has cotton manufactures, chiefly at Mulhausen and Colmar. Saxony makes cotton goods at Chemnitz and Zwickau, woollen at Leipzig and Chemnitz, and china at Dresden and Meissen. Silesia is a rich district, and makes woollen, cotton, and linen goods at Breslau, Görlitz and Liegnitz, and iron and steel goods at Breslau.

England has a good position for trade both with Europe and America, coal and iron found together, a suitable climate, good communication, and intelligent, enterprising people. At the Industrial Revolution at the end of the eighteenth century, when the power of steam was turned to account, and machinery worked by steam was invented, England was the first country to make use of these advantages. Coal and iron were worked,

railways laid down, machinery set up, and manufactures increased. Cotton, iron, and woollen manufactures took the lead in England, and the products were sent all over the world. For more than a hundred years England held the first place for manufactures and trade; and the production of cotton, iron, and woollen goods gradually increased. Their decline was due to the unequal competition of other countries, which about fifty years ago began to develop their own resources, and to establish manufactures for themselves. Germany worked up its coal and iron and developed its manufactures with part of the money obtained from France as indemnity after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. The United States have exceptional advantages with regard to coal and iron, as both of these are near the surface and particularly easy to work. The Southern States took up the cotton manufacture after the war between South and North. Belgium has increased its manufactures and trade since it became an independent kingdom in 1830, and Russia has developed its manufactures since the freedom of the serfs was granted by the Czar, Alexander II., in 1861. It is natural and desirable that other countries should develop their resources, but it is not a natural consequence that thereby we should lose our position of supremacy. England has great natural advantages as a manufacturing and trading country, and held the first place in the world for trade from about 1750 to 1870. As these natural advantages still exist, it is important to consider what causes have led to the decline of British industries in the last forty years, and how these hindrances can be removed. The chief obstacles to our progress seem to be unequal foreign competition, and high carriage freight and port charges.

Foreign competition is unequal for several causes. Most countries protect their own industries by a tax on imports, and so exclude British goods. On the other hand, to keep up prices in their own country, they send their surplus goods into England free of duty, and sell at a price with which English manufacturers cannot compete. If there were free trade all over the world each country would stand on its own merits, but if other countries protect their industries, and we do not, ours must suffer—our home markets are swamped with low-priced foreign goods, while foreign markets are closed against us.

Manufacturers in all countries find it worth while to keep up their usual staff, and to work full time, even when through the fluctuations of trade they are obliged to sell at a loss. They can only keep going in this way if they are sure of a market, and in a protected country they can always depend on the home trade at least. It is undesirable that prices in the country itself should vary much, so the manufacturers sell their extra goods elsewhere

for what they will fetch, and depend for their profits on the home market. As England is almost the only country without a tax on imports, these surplus goods are brought into it, and sold at prices often below the cost of production. At first sight it seems to be an advantage to be able to buy these cheap goods, but the offer is very uncertain and temporary, and the disadvantage to our industries far outweighs the small advantage to the consumer. The manufacturers cannot compete with these low prices, so they must cut down expenses by lowering wages or reducing the staff, and smaller firms have been obliged to close altogether. Of course, if an industry can never pay its way or produce goods as cheaply as other countries can, it is evidently an unsuitable one and not worth protecting, but this is not the case with the English industries. We could hold our own against equal competition, but we want protection against these low-priced goods sent from other countries to keep up prices in their own.

We have hitherto considered the trade of the world in general as much as our own. We have supplied machines to other countries and experts to show the use of them, and we have allowed foreign students to work in our factories and learn our methods. These countries now make their own goods, and close their doors on ours.

Our Factory Acts and regulations though good in themselves necessarily raise the price of the products. Living is more expensive in England than in most countries, and wages are higher. Germans are able to work for less, and so their goods are cheaper. With regard to toy-making, for instance, German children help considerably, and there are no regulations as to hours of labour.

Carriage of goods by railway, freights, and port charges are all very heavy. Railway charges are especially felt by the manufacturers in the Midlands and by farmers. Goods sent from Birmingham to London or Liverpool cost 8s. or 10s. per ton, and expensive carriage is a serious drawback, where the chief industry is the making of heavy iron and steel goods. Agriculture scarcely pays in England, although the soil is fertile and the climate good, as the cost of sending the produce away by train uses up nearly all the profit. The Eastern Counties are well adapted for growing wheat, peas, and beans. Kent and the Severn district are good for fruit. Wales and Scotland yield pasture, and Ireland is excellent for dairy farming, but all these suffer from the cost of carriage. Market gardening, dairy farming, fruit growing, poultry rearing and bee keeping might become highly profitable, but at present they are only successful near large towns, as the goods can then be brought in carts and sold directly by the producer. We import a great deal of butter,

eggs, cheese, and bacon, although we could easily produce them ourselves. Many people would be glad to take up these industries if there were any chance of their being able to sell their products to advantage.

The present time is the most suitable for considering the encouragement and improvement of our industries, as the war has affected the present output, and there will soon be a serious shortage of many different kinds of goods. We need to strengthen the old industries and start new ones, so that we may be more commercially independent, and make our trade secure on a firm and progressive basis.

The following tables show the goods we have been importing from Germany, often to the detriment of our own manufactures, and the goods we have been sending to Germany, many of which are raw materials, which we ought to make up ourselves.

IMPORTS FROM GERMANY IN 1912. VALUE £70,000,000.

	Million £.		Million £.
1. Cotton, manufactured goods	6.8	10. Zinc, and manufactures	1.7
2. Sugar, raw and refined	6.2	11. Dye stuffs	1.7
3. Iron and steel	5.8	12. Paper	1.5
4. Silk, manufactured	2.5	13. Skins and furs	1.4
5. Machinery and parts	2.4	14. Apparel	1.3
6. Woollen and worsted	2.1	15. Motor-cars and parts	1.2
7. Leather	2.0	16. Leather manufactures	1.1
8. Corn and grain	1.9	17. Toys and games	1.1
9. Chemicals	1.7		

EXPORTS TO GERMANY IN 1912. VALUE £40,000,000.

	Million £.		Million £.
1. Cotton yarn and manufactures	7.2	6. Woollen manufactures	2.2
2. Woollen yarns	4.3	7. Machinery	2.1
3. Coal and coke	4.0	8. Alpaca and other yarns	1.6
4. Metals and manufactures	2.7	9. Wool	1.4
5. Fish	2.6		

It will be noticed that the total value of our exports to Germany was little more than half that of our imports, so that about £30,000,000 per year was sent out of the country to Germany alone. Many of these imports might have been made in England, and probably will be in future, and it is suggested that beet sugar should be cultivated in England. The German products are very similar to our own, so there is no reason why we should spend £70,000,000 in buying them, leaving our own people unemployed. A large proportion of the exports consist of coal and raw materials. These should be retained in the country for our own manufactures. Coal and iron ores are being rapidly exhausted, yarns should be made up and the finished product exported, and machinery should be used at home. A manufacturing country should import food and raw materials, and export the finished manufactured goods.

Industries cannot do their best work unless a market for them is assured. The principle, the larger the capital the more the profit, only holds good if the market is large enough. Protected countries are sure of their home trade, and so their works can run full time and pay good wages. Britain under free trade cannot do this. Manufacturers cannot be sure of selling their goods, and so do not like to risk much capital. In bad years therefore they cannot run full time, and are obliged to reduce their staff and cut down expenses. With protection they could be sure of selling their goods, and so could use their capital to advantage, run full time, keep up a regular staff, with good wages, and could soon produce their goods more cheaply. Protection naturally leads to cheaper production after a few years, as well as to more permanent conditions and higher wages. Profits can be used to extend the business, or manufacturers can combine to organise the whole industry. Iron and steel manufacturers with sufficient capital find it an advantage to have their own coal and iron mines, railways and ships, and to manufacture the final product. Two British shipbuilding firms have their own coal and iron mines, and do the whole process of manufacture. Spinners, weavers, dyers, and merchants in the textile trades might combine and agree to sell to each other and work together.

E. C. ABBOTT.

(To be continued.)

CANADIAN INDIANS AND THE FAR NORTH

THAT Canadian Indians have survived the hardship caused by the adverse effect of the war on the fur trade and are facing the situation with confidence is the statement which appears in the annual report of the Indian Department just issued. In agriculture and other pursuits their earnings present a most creditable showing. The native population has remained practically stable, and health conditions have on the whole been good. The total value of agricultural products of Indian industry in 1915 was £362,724, and of real and personal property £12,087,842, of which £9,353,002 is in land. The total income of the Indians was £1,185,519, a marked decrease having taken place in the amount earned by hunting as a result of the decline in fur prices. The Canadian Indians have during the year given many instances of their loyalty to the Empire, and their contributions to the patriotic funds are reported as totalling over £3,000. Quite a number of them are serving with the forces.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

THE Admiralty has authorised a test of Nova Scotia washed nut coal to be made for fleet purposes locally, in compliance with a request from the Nova Scotia Government, which considers that this coal is equal in every respect to Welsh. Should this prove suitable for the ships of war making Halifax, Nova Scotia, their base, it will lead to considerable economies, by saving the freight on the Welsh coal hitherto carried from this side, besides releasing the colliers now employed for service elsewhere. The collieries in Nova Scotia are prepared to deliver 1,000 tons daily of the coal in question.

THE offer by the Canadian Government of £10,000 towards the establishment of an Anglo-Russian hospital has been accepted by the executive committee in London. The Canadian Government made this offer as an expression of the appreciation of the Canadian people of the valour and heroism of the Russian armies. It is estimated that the amount above mentioned will equip and maintain 100 beds for a year. At the suggestion of the St. John Ambulance Association, all units of the Canadian Expeditionary Forces are to receive instruction in first aid work before being sent overseas. Details are not yet forthcoming, but the proposal in general outline is that three to five competent instructors selected by the provincial councils of the Association will be appointed for each division or military district. They will have the rank of sergeants, and wherever a unit is being trained an instructor will be sent. The training will embrace such subjects as fractures, hemorrhages, insensibility, artificial respiration, bandaging and methods of carrying the wounded. The proposal is warmly endorsed by The Duke of Connaught, Governor-General, Grand Prior of the Order of St. John, and by Major-General Hughes, Minister of Militia.

SINCE the outbreak of war the Canadian Department of the Interior has been particular not to encourage to the Dominion those who are required for His Majesty's armies or those others who being disqualified for service with the colours are required for the making of munitions. All emigration activity was therefore suspended. Notwithstanding this, however, settlers have been arriving in Canada from other quarters, chiefly English-speaking, and for the ten months of this year no fewer than 14,549 homestead entries were made. This equals an area of

2,327,840 acres, equivalent practically to the English counties of Hertford, Bedford, Buckingham, Surrey, Oxford, Middlesex and London. These figures, of course, show a considerable falling-off as compared with those for the corresponding ten months of last year, but, notwithstanding, they are truly remarkable, and reflect the confidence universally felt in the future of Canada.

THE area sown to fall wheat for next season's harvest in Canada is estimated to be 1,100,800 acres, which is about 15 per cent. less than the area of 1,294,000 acres sown in 1914 for 1915. The decrease is principally in Ontario and is due to the heavy rains of August, which prevented the working of the soil in time for seeding. In Alberta there is an increase from 230,000 acres in 1914 to 260,500 acres in 1915, the plus difference representing 13 per cent. In Manitoba there is a decrease from 10,900 to 9,400 acres: in Saskatchewan there is no change from the estimated area of 4,100 acres, and in British Columbia there is a small increase of 200 acres, making 6,200 acres sown to this crop. For all Canada about 53 per cent. of the area intended for next year's crops is reported as ploughed by November, as compared with 71 per cent. last year and 54 per cent. in 1913. In the North-West the percentages are as follows: Manitoba, 36 against 92; Saskatchewan, 27 against 77; Alberta, 34 against 56. Spring wheat is the big Canadian crop.

THIS year's Field Crop Competition at the Canadian Winter Fair, held in Guelph, is said to excel all previous competitions, both in quantity and standard of quality. The Field Crop Competition in Ontario was inaugurated in 1903, the Department of Agriculture giving a grant of \$1,000 for prizes. The number of agricultural associations allowed to enter the competition that year was ten. It was required of the Board of Directors of each association that they should decide upon the particular kind of crop they should compete in. Each society was limited to one crop. The Department of Agriculture arranged to send expert judges to the fields of the contestants when ripe. It also undertook to pay express charges on the exhibits of the five prize winners in each society who wished to compete. It was stipulated that the grain which took prizes was to be retained by the Department of Agriculture for experimental purposes, and that the grain which received no award was to be sold by auction and the money refunded to the farmers making entries.

Later, agricultural societies were allowed to enter three kinds of crops in the competition, and the grant from the Government was made \$50 for each crop. In order to receive this grant, however, each society was obliged to augment this amount by \$25 for each crop competed in. In the seven years since the inauguration of this line of agricultural educational work it has succeeded far beyond the expectation of its originators, and this year nearly 200 societies have taken part. 6,000 fields, owned by as many farmers, and containing 60,000 acres, were judged in the Province of Ontario. 130 judges were sent out by the Department of Agriculture, which has increased its grant from \$1,000 to \$25,500. As a striking example of the financial benefits gained from this competition,

one farmer attending the Winter Fair this year has stated that he has built a brick house, the cost of which is to come out of the increased prices he has received from prize-winning grain in the seven years he has competed. In order that the judges may arrive at a uniform system of judging, short courses of instruction are held at the Ontario Agricultural College and the Dominion Experimental Farm, Ottawa, during the first week in July of each year. The educational value of this work, both to judges and farmers, has been incalculable.

A USEFUL and interesting pamphlet giving advice to Canadian farmers as to how to most profitably employ the season between harvest and seed-time has been compiled by Mr. J. H. Grisdale, Director of the Dominion Experimental Farms, and is issued by the Publications Branch of the Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, Canada. A careful perusal of its pages will amply reward the stockman, the agriculturist, the horticulturist, the poultryman, the tobacco-grower, and those interested in bees. A special feature of the compilation is the advice given under the caption, "Shelter the Implements." The extent of the vast sum of money spent annually on farm machinery is impossible to realise. To equip an average farm with machinery costs about £200, which under ordinary conditions of treatment will do good work for more than five years. To counteract the waste caused by unsheltered implements a working plan of a suggested shed 25 by 47 feet is given, with directions necessary for its construction. This is merely another manifestation of how the Canadian Government helps its farmers.

ALL over the Dominion, says *The Commercial Journal* of Winnipeg, prospects are extremely bright. "Not for many a long day has there been such a buoyant confidence as has been manifested by all classes and conditions of business men. Particularly is this true of the West. A long and close survey of Western conditions convinces us that the West is about to enter upon an unprecedented era (which will not be robbed of its fruits by speculation) of prosperity. The signs of the times are propitious and the omens are all favourable. The crop has been beyond the most sanguine estimates. The most cautious farm journals are revising their former estimates steadily in an upward manner. The crop has not only been a 'bumper,' but has even, in some places, been phenomenal. Reports reach us daily of sixty or more bushels of wheat to the acre. Altogether there cannot, it is conservatively estimated, be fewer than 300 million bushels altogether, although the first estimates ranged only from 200 to 240 millions. The money value of the four staples—wheat, oats, barley, and flax—is expected to reach easily the half-billion dollar mark. It will enable the people to pay their debts and buy for cash. It will rehabilitate Canada financially. It will restore confidence and dispel depression. It will quicken our public endeavours and give new life to our private enterprises."

THE fly in the amber of Canadian prosperity at the present time is the high cost of freight for exports to Europe. A Scotch firm of railway sleeper and pole contractors, writing to a correspondent in Canada, says: "We are glad to see the efforts that are being made in

the interests of forestry in Canada, and we only regret that the freight to this country makes Canadian timber so very expensive by the time it reaches here as to make business very difficult." This interference, however, will be of only a temporary nature, and once shipping has been released from its wartime duties, the flow of Canadian produce to Europe will again become normal.

NOWHERE in Canada are there better natural facilities for the successful cultivation of fruit (especially apples) than in Nova Scotia, where both climate and soil combine to this issue in a marked degree. The fact that apple trees continue in full bearing for a longer period than in any other country in the world is a proof of the wonderful natural suitability of the province for this industry. The summer temperature with abundance of sunshine and sufficient rainfall conduces to a vigorous growth. Irrigation is therefore unnecessary, as with proper attention the moisture required for the health and life of the trees is naturally conserved. The principal apple-growing district is in the Annapolis Valley, which extends for about eighty miles through the counties of Kings and Annapolis. Although orchards abound in this section, it is estimated that not more than 10 per cent. of the land suitable for apple culture has yet been planted. But while this valley is at present considered to be the centre of the fruit industry, it has been satisfactorily demonstrated by means of experimental orchards established by the Nova Scotia Government in various other parts of the province that apples can be successfully cultivated in practically any district. As regards the outlet, there is a strong and increasing market for Nova Scotia apples in Great Britain, and the comparative nearness to the Mother Country, combined with facilities for shipment, places the province in a most advantageous position for cheap and expeditious exportation. The profits arising from fruit-growing range from 20 per cent. upwards on well-managed orchards. The long bearing life of the trees (80 to 100 years) is an important factor, as the orchardist is assured not only of an income for his own life, but also of a valuable asset for his descendants.

THERE are in Ontario about 7,000,000 apple trees in bearing. At an extremely modest estimate they should produce every year at least one barrel per tree, or 7,000,000 barrels, of first and second grade apples (No. 1 and No. 2 as they are called) in addition to the smaller and poorer apples. Instead of that they probably yield not more than 3,500,000 barrels of No. 1 and No. 2. This poor average is simply due to the fungus and the codling moth; and both of these pests can be absolutely controlled even in the worst section of the county. With thorough spraying Ontario can grow the finest "Spys" in the world, and the spy is, taken all round, perhaps the most valuable apple known—at any rate in Ontario. The same might be also said of Baldwins. The ordinary fruit grower, farmer or packer can scarcely realise what might be made out of these fruits when properly grown. There is no difficulty in obtaining 2s. per barrel more for well-grown and well-coloured fruit than for that which passes as the same grade, but merely passes.

A NOTED Russian flax expert who has been on a visit to Western Canada investigating the flax production of that part of the Dominion, writes to the *Canadian Miller and Cerealist* in response to an inquiry, that "the possibilities here (in Canada) are just the same as they are in Russia. The climate here I compare with that of the three Russian provinces, Pskof, Ostrof and Witebsk, while the soil is much more adapted to flax growing. These three Russian provinces yield a good quality of flax and seed and are cultivated for both crops." He says that some of the samples shown him that had been dew-retted were of fair quality, but that the climate is too dry for dew-retting and a much better commercial fibre can be produced by retting in water holes. He adds, "the interest of the farmers here in growing flax for both crops is much greater than I had expected to find." This is the evidence of a man who has reason to know the possibilities of the Canadian flax crop. He sees no reason why some one of the various methods of retting cannot be applied in the various districts in the west, where flax is grown in large quantities, and his estimate of the quality of the flax fibre produced suggests a very profitable field for the western farmers. The matter is one of very considerable importance, not alone to the Canadian farmers, but also to the great linen industries of Scotland and Ulster, whose supplies of raw material were seriously threatened by the war.

COAL peat fuel is being utilised in Canada somewhat extensively, the peat being mixed with coal breeze and then pressed into briquettes. Such fuel has been found efficient and economical. Chalk also, of which there are large deposits in Canada, can be converted into a profitable fuel. If the chalk is pulverised and then combined with a certain percentage of breeze and solidified tar, the mixture being compressed into small briquettes or pebbles about the size of a small egg, the briquettes burn with perfect satisfaction. The fuel has the advantage of being smokeless, has a high calorific value and burns freely. Coal is, of course, available all over Canada wherever the railways have penetrated and new coal fields are being constantly developed ; but there is a demand for the new fuel and it provides a useful substitute.

MR. FRED. C. ELFORD, dominion poultry husbandman, has been making a tour of British Columbia with a view to the inspection of poultry, and expresses himself as amazed at the number of poultry farms already established over the southern section of Vancouver Island. He said there were few places in the Dominion possessing so many chicken farms ; but the majority of those in the industry made the mistake of limiting themselves to a certain class of stock. The price of food was, of course, a drawback, but that would be remedied in time. Mr. Elford also said that owing to the importance of the industry on Vancouver Island, it was the intention of the Department of Agriculture to specialise in poultry at the Sidney Experimental Farm. Preparations will be made to house the birds, and the stock, which will be introduced in the spring, will be of the best quality. Mr. Elford is of the opinion that there are many areas where the land, unsuitable for ordinary crops, can be put to profitable use in poultry raising.

THE Committee of Investigation on Workmen's Compensation Laws, appointed by the Government of British Columbia, is now visiting Oregon, California, Nevada, Iowa, Wisconsin, Ohio, West Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, Ontario and Nova Scotia. The Committee is composed of a representative of the employers and a representative of labour, the Government being represented by a well-known Nova Scotia lawyer, who has been for the past few years connected with the Department of the Attorney-General of British Columbia. It is expected the Government will introduce a Workmen's Compensation Bill next session.

NEWS of the discovery by the Canadian explorer, Stefansson, of records left by one of the Franklin search parties sixty-two years ago is contained in the detailed report of his explorations received by the Canadian Naval Service Department. The records were those left by McClintock, who headed one of the parties which went in search of Franklin in 1853. Curiously enough, they were found by Stefansson on exactly the same day of the year as they were deposited, June 15th. By another coincidence, McClintock's records, left in a cavern near Cape McClintock, tell of the explorer's intention to travel three days westward in search of new land. Stefansson instead travelled three days north and made his discovery of a hitherto unknown land. Stefansson is now in camp on the north end of Bank's Land, if he has not already reached Prince Patrick's Island. At the latter place he expects to establish a winter base as far north as possible. In February he will start on an exploring trip over the ice of Beaufort Sea. The explorer is of the opinion that the new land he has discovered does not extend very far west until it is defined by a narrow channel. On the other side of the channel he hopes to find more new country to add to Canada's far northern possessions.

A VERY lively interest in the health of school children is an outstanding feature in Ontario. In Toronto, for instance, they have what is known as the "Forest School," which takes its name from the fact that the teaching of the children is conducted under the trees in the parks of the city. The plan of operation is very simple. Boys and girls who are run down in health and who will be benefited by prolonged open-air treatment, are taken each day from their homes by private cars to the park, where their day is divided into school, rest and recreation periods. This system means that for almost six months of the year they are under the same course of treatment and are obliged to follow a definite line of action for that period of the time. All their work is taken out of doors, plain and wholesome meals are provided for them and a regular rest insisted upon. The health of the child is vastly improved and the all-round effect is most satisfactory.

THE Farm-Women's Institute in Ontario is a most effective association of its kind. Although it is comparatively young it has attracted the attention of other countries and served as a pattern for many similar institutes or clubs. The great social advantage of these clubs is that they are composed of farm women of varied social standing. Prominence is

given to such educational work as will make life on the farm more comfortable and raise the standard of home life in every direction. The Women's Institutes, however, expand their sphere of activity into the communal life, and have exerted great influence in the direction of civic improvements, the welfare of children, the maintenance of hospitals, etc. By their initiative, towns and villages have been better cleaned and better lighted. Lectures have also been given on a great variety of subjects. There are about 850 institutes in the province with a membership of 25,000.

HOT house or winter lamb production represents a special phase of Canadian sheep husbandry. Under the ordinary and generally accepted routine of lamb and mutton raising the season of marketing extends through only a comparatively short period; when the year's supply is placed upon the market within the space of a few months, leaving the consumer without lamb for the remainder of the year. In an effort to place this delicate article of diet within the reach of the average purchaser, the Canadian winter lamb trade has developed until at the present time it is considered worthy of the time and attention of progressive and experienced sheep raisers situated in favourable localities where a sale may be found for their product at prices that will remunerate them for the extra care and attention that winter lambs require. "Hot house," "Milk lambs" and "Winter lambs" are names used to designate this special product. They are often misunderstood. The term "hot house" owes its origin to the manner of preparing the lambs for the market, which comprehends careful and scientific feeding under housed conditions. These conditions are in no way analogous to the system employed in forcing plants under glass. It is seldom necessary to resort to artificial heating of buildings. The lambs, however, are born at a time of the year when the weather is cold, and must, therefore, be confined within a barn sufficiently warm to promote rapidity of growth. Lambs for the winter trade are never weaned, but are marketed when nine to fourteen weeks old.

THE Department of Marine and Fisheries is again coming to the assistance of the salmon. On many of the best salmon streams in Canada power development works have been constructed or are being constructed. Dams have been built across these streams barring the salmon's way up to the spawning grounds. In times past it has been the practice to overcome ordinary barriers, such as natural waterfalls, etc., by means of the construction of fishways, but this has proved to be inadequate. An experiment is now being made with a new contrivance. This is nothing more or less than an elevator. The fish arrives at the foot of the dam and finds its way into the elevator shaft. It is then taken up on a tray to the higher level and permitted to glide into the upper stream. The trays are automatically operated on the balance principle. The process goes on repeating itself. One of these elevators has been built at St. George, New Brunswick, and is proving satisfactory. The fisheries officials believe that this will save millions of eggs which the salmon would otherwise take elsewhere.

THE Ontario Bee Keepers' Association was organised in 1880. It consists of a central organisation and a number of affiliated bee keepers' associations. In 1913 there were twenty-six federated societies, with a total membership of about 1,000. The society is growing rapidly and has doubled its membership during the last two years. Apiary demonstrations are held in different sections of the country. The Association has been successful in securing legislation beneficial for the industry. It has also obtained an annual State grant of £800, which is being expended for the prevention of diseases and for the demonstration of improved methods. A three days' convention is held annually simultaneously with the fruit, flower and honey show in Ontario. A committee of experts has been appointed to forecast the price for honey and to send bulletined information to the members. The work of this committee has done much good by standardising the price of honey, etc., throughout the province. There are estimated to be about 300,000 hives in Ontario kept by 10,000 owners, and producing annually about 5,000 tons of honey.

THE Canadian Bureau of Census and Statistics proposes to take a special census of Canadian manufacturers. It is not intended to send out enumerators, but to collect the statistics required by means of forms posted by the Bureau to all manufacturers. Upon these forms the manufacturers are asked to give details of the capital invested and the number of employees on the 15th of each month, and to state also the volume of production. The Bureau will ask that in this statement the ordinary production be distinguished from that due to war orders. The Economic and Development Commission, as a preliminary to the work it is undertaking, is now engaged in gathering and collating information and statistics regarding all branches of employment and production.

MR. BROCKMAN, a member of the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A. for North America, after passing through Vancouver, writes as follows to the secretary of the Vancouver Association:—"I want you to know that it is not rhetoric, nor an attempt to please, that makes me say what I do about the future of British Columbia. I cannot state too strongly the certainty of a great future for this region. The men that hold on now are sure to receive their reward in the future. Nothing can prevent a great civilisation growing up along the Pacific coast but the lack of faith, courage and enterprise on the part of the people of the Pacific coast. I see no indication that they are going to fail to have these qualities."

THE Omineca District is increasing its silver-lead production, and the prospects in connection with the gold and copper output are most encouraging. The Rocher de Boule Mine at Hazelton has been shipping since last spring 3,000 tons of copper a month to the Granby Company's smelter at Amyox. This ore carries between 9 per cent. and 10 per cent. copper, $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. silver and 0.05 oz. gold per ton. The gross profit is from \$25 to \$30 per ton, or close on \$3,000 a day during the period in which shipments have been made. The result is that the mine is now reported to be in a good financial position. A new coal area is being opened up

at Nanoose Bay, Vancouver Island, where diamond drilling is being attended with satisfactory results. The increase in the production of coal is being met by an increased demand, due to the improvement of general conditions affecting the coal industry on the island.

SOUTH AFRICA

A CONFERENCE of representatives of Chambers of Commerce, the engineering and other industrial bodies, was held recently in Johannesburg for the purpose of considering to what extent South Africa could help the Empire in the manufacture of machinery and other articles in the Union which are now imported. The conference appointed a large and representative central committee, and committees are to be appointed in various towns in the Union for the purpose of organising the local resources. Lists of articles that could be manufactured locally were received, when it was shown that there was scarcely a town in the Union which could not do something to help.

A CONFERENCE representative of agricultural associations, cold storages, shipping lines, municipalities and others interested in the meat export trade was held under the auspices of the Union Department of Agriculture at Durban recently at which the Government was urged to take a census of the cattle in the Union at the earliest date, and in the meantime to ascertain the number of cattle which would be available for export during the next season. It was also unanimously resolved that there should be compulsory Government inspection and standardisation of all meat exported. The question of cold storage space on ships was raised, when the representative of the Union Castle Company stated that no space would be available for meat during February and March, as it would be devoted to fruit.

The production of Turkish tobacco in the Western Province of the Union of South Africa is an industry of comparatively recent growth, but it has developed with extraordinary rapidity, especially in the French Hoek Valley, where the soil and the climate appear to approximate very nearly to the native conditions of the best varieties of Turkish tobacco. So popular has this branch of farming become that in several instances farmers have uprooted their vineyards in order to plant tobacco. The area under cultivation for this tobacco is 530 acres, the number of growers is about 70, the annual yield is 250,000 lbs., and the average price for 1913 crop was 1s. 8d. per lb.

A NEW paying industry in South Africa appears to be the growing of violets. It is reported that Mr. Merriman, the veteran statesman, has made as much as £400 for one year out of violet growing. The soap factories are said to be offering to purchase flowers for soap scents.

In their report on the exhibits of wine on the Western Province Agricultural Society's Wine Show for producers, the judges state that the samples sent in were on the whole of a superior quality. Very few samples were not fit for exhibition, and the judges had great difficulty

in arriving at a definite result. Of the white varieties, the samples of light dry wines competing under Class 1, and the wines competing for the Cup in Class 21, were of excellent quality, and a considerable advance on last year's exhibits. Of the red wines, the Burgundy type, the Cabernet Sauvignon and the exhibits for the Cup were very superior. The sweet wines of Robertson and Montagu were not represented, and there was a very limited show of ports, dry as well as sweet.

NEW ZEALAND

EVIDENCE of the success with which efforts to establish the quinnat salmon in New Zealand have been rewarded has again been furnished by the run of fish in the South Island rivers during the recent spawning season. The Commissioner of Fisheries, Mr. L. F. Ayson, states that the largest spawning has taken place in the Waitaki River, its four large tributaries, and through the lakes of the Southern Alps, almost up to where the waters issuing from the glaciers begin to assume the character of rivers. The biggest fish were seen in the Dobson River, and two measured $38\frac{1}{2}$ inches and $36\frac{1}{2}$ inches respectively. The first would weigh 50 lbs., and the second 40 lbs. to 45 lbs. The fish have been found in abundance in the Rangitata and Rakaia Rivers, and elsewhere, and line fishers have occasionally caught them when sea-fishing. Reports of the manager of the Hakataramea hatchery show that splendid fish have been seen far inland in a number of the rivers rising in the Southern Alps. The quinnat salmon were first introduced to New Zealand in 1900, and eggs were imported for six years in succession. The fry was first liberated in the Hakataramea and its tributaries, and later in the Waitaki. The potential value of the quinnat salmon to New Zealand as a sporting fish and a valuable addition to the food supply of the country is evidently very great.

THERE is in Auckland, in the midst of that large and flourishing city in the north of New Zealand, still standing as bravely as ever, a windmill which has been a conspicuous landmark for something over seventy years. Ever since it was constructed the mill has been used by its owner as a flour-mill. The sails were taken away to give place to suction gas and steam power, but the cost of this was so great that the owner decided it would pay him to return to sail power. The mill is very high, the distance from the ground to the top of the sail being about 100 feet. The four sails are each 9 feet wide and 70 feet long from point to point, and the windmill enjoys the reputation of being now the only one in the Dominion used for grinding wheat.

THE subject of sulphur supplies was considered at the Fruitgrowers' Conference held in Wellington recently. It was stated that while at present this commodity had to be imported into New Zealand, large deposits already existed. A delegate drew attention to the fact that the recent volcanic explosion on White Island had totally destroyed the works there, but that the owner intended proceeding to England to endeavour to form a new company. It was decided that an attempt be made to improve the supplies of New Zealand sulphur.

SURELY amongst those to be high exalted when better times dawn should be a widow in Wellington, New Zealand. On applying for a pass to enable her to be on the wharf when one of the recent reinforcements left the capital city she was asked: "Are you next-of-kin to a soldier?" She answered simply: "Yes, I have only one left. I had eight boys, seven have already gone, four are killed, three are wounded, and now I am sending my last. There is only me."

THE Post and Telegraph Amendment Bill, introduced in the New Zealand Parliament by the Postmaster-General, provides that fixed deposits of amounts not less than £50 may be received in the Post Office Savings Bank at such rate of interest, not exceeding 5 per cent., as the Minister for Finance may determine and gazette from time to time. Such deposits are to be lodged for not less than twelve months.

INFORMATION gathered from returned soldiers shows that the Maoris were heartily welcomed at Anzac Cove. They immediately went on outpost duty, and were also employed in the main firing-line at sapping work. Before long many were wounded, and the calmness with which they went to the operating-table was amazing. One Maori came in shot through both legs and with one thigh broken. He nodded to the doctor, asked for a cigarette, and smoked calmly right through a painful operation of setting and dressing the shattered limbs. He was only one of two dozen such cases.

ABOUT four and a half tons of German money has been removed to Auckland from Samoa. The consignment consisted of the coins in circulation when Samoa was taken over by the New Zealand Expeditionary Force. The German money has been replaced by British coinage.

THE members of the Auckland (New Zealand) branch of the British Medical Association give free treatment to all relatives of soldiers who need it, while the members of the Northern Pharmaceutical Association make up prescriptions free of charge.

A SUGGESTION has been submitted by the New Zealand Minister of Defence to the Imperial authorities, that wounded British officers who are unable to return to the front should be sent to New Zealand to train troops there.

CROWN COLONIES

REPORTING on Ashanti for 1914 the Acting Governor tells us that in spite of the war the year has been one of continued trade prosperity, and a marked advance is noticeable in education, sanitation, and road construction. In particular he calls the attention of the Colonial Secretary to the practical loyalty shown by the Chiefs generally, and especially those of "Kumawu, Agogo, and Kwaman, at the time of the outbreak of war—a significant testimony to the wise administration of Ashanti by the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Fuller. He also draws attention to the generous contributions of the Chiefs and people to the Imperial War

Fund—a tangible expression of loyalty which they are now following up by the gift of an aeroplane to the Overseas Club.” As Mr. Fuller remarks, “Not the least gratifying factor in the attitude of the natives lies in the implicit trust displayed in the ultimate victory of the British Government—a trust engendered as much by conviction as it is by sentiment.”

A SOMEWHAT belated report reaches us from the Commissioner at Weihaiwei from which we learn that the Colony was adversely affected in 1914 by the war and the weather. Phenomenal drought until the middle of July was succeeded by a record rainfall and a succession of severe storms which prevailed throughout the autumn and winter. Much havoc was done to the crops, and buildings and public works suffered heavily. The war and the consequent fall in exchange, together with the early departure of the fleet and the curtailment of the season for visitors, caused heavy losses to farmers and merchants. When the war broke out the people were inclined to panic (as wild rumours revived memories of the Chino-Japanese war, the Boxer troubles, and the late revolutionary conflicts, from all of which the population of this territory and the neighbouring districts of China had suffered much). Confidence was restored by the Government explaining the situation to the merchants and the village headmen, and when Tsingtao was blockaded the people were fully reassured. They had heard a great deal about German methods of government, and especially about their land system, taxation, and discrimination against the native population, and were terrified at the prospect of an alien domination based on similar principles. Very little is now (May 1915) heard about the war among the Chinese population.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

Whitaker's Almanack, 1916. Owing to causes arising out of the war, this indispensable book of reference did not make its appearance in time to be included in our earlier reviews. There is no falling off either in the accuracy or variety of its contents. Within its pages one finds everything one wants, and nothing one does not want. It is a unique publication, and the latest edition fully sustains its great reputation. Price 1s. net, boards 2s. 6d.

“Hearts and Faces” is the title of a novel announced for early publication by John Lane. The author is John Murray Gibbon, a well-known official of the Canadian Pacific Railway in Montreal. The scene is laid in the studios of London and Paris, where at one time Mr. Gibbon worked as an artist.

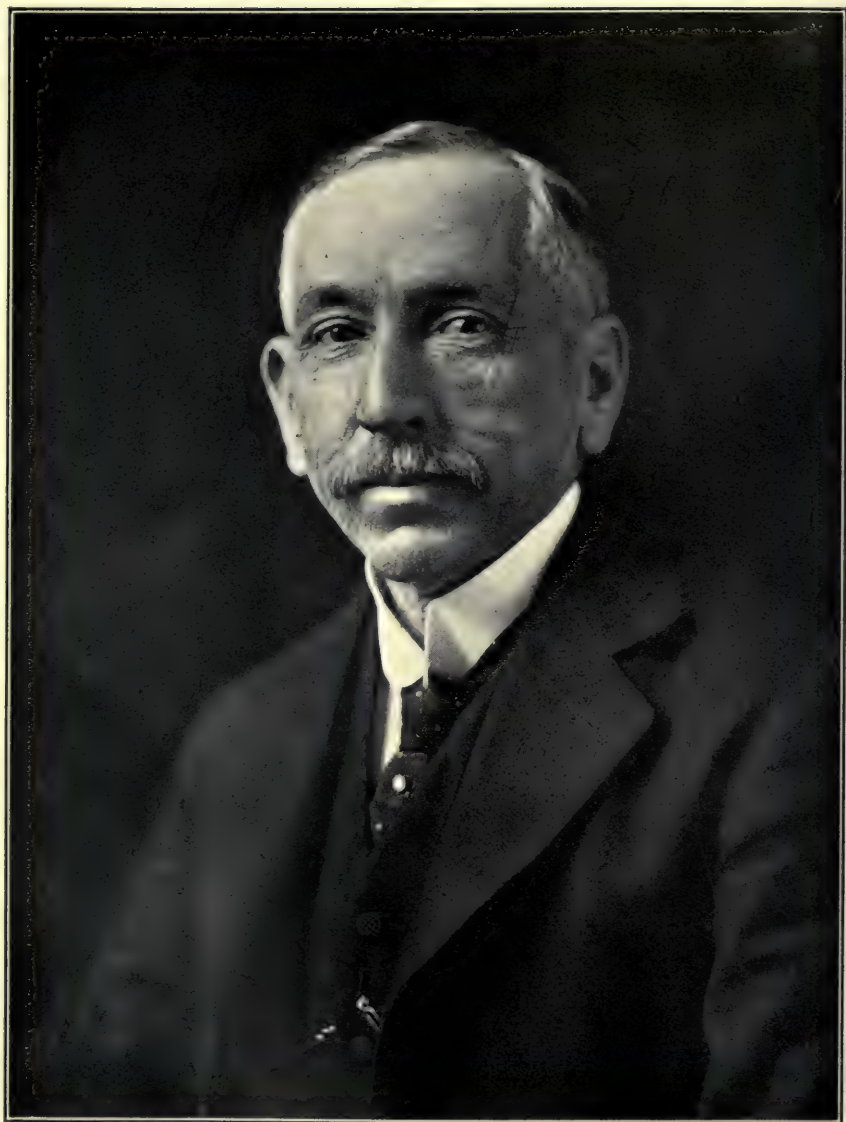


Photo Elliott & Fry.

Wm. Hughes

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THE VOICE OF EMPIRE

MR. HUGHES AND HIS SPEECHES

I.

MR. HUGHES

SOME eight years have passed since Mr. Hughes and I first met. We talked of many things and many countries, and his breadth of vision, strength of character and sound common-sense left an impression upon my memory which had not faded when I welcomed him on his arrival in London as Prime Minister of the Commonwealth of Australia.

No one who knows Mr. Hughes or has listened to his speeches during the last fortnight will hesitate to acknowledge that he is a great man. More than that, he stands for a great cause and a great policy, the cause of unity and the policy of Empire. His incisive method of speaking, forceful style of expression and natural modesty have won for him a success which few men have achieved in so short a period. Organisation, not insular but imperial, is the keynote of his oratory, action the breath of his nostrils. Procrastination to him is anathema. To-day and not to-morrow is his motto. Untrammelled by party traditions, he bids us abandon shibboleths, set aside prejudices, get rid of ideas that hamper and face facts as they are.

Coming as he does amongst us in the midst of a great war, his presence is doubly welcome, for not only is he able to tell us what the people in the great southern continent are thinking

about, but he brings to our councils fresh thoughts and new propositions. As the head of the most democratic government in the world, he cannot be said to have any leanings towards conservative views, while as the leader in Australia of organised labour he understands and appreciates to the full the wants and requirements of the working classes. Freedom and liberty are to him as they are to us, the guiding spirit of national life. Something worth living for, something worth fighting for. He knows, as we know, that if Britain goes down in this struggle the British Empire goes down too, and like a true patriot, he is determined, cost what it may, to leave no stone unturned to aid and assist the Motherland in bringing this terrible war to a successful and triumphant conclusion.

But intent as Mr. Hughes is on winning the war, he wishes to know, what so many of us wish to know, what is to be the policy of this country towards those great economic problems which must inevitably arise as soon as peace is proclaimed. Are we going on in the same haphazard way as in pre-war days? Are the relations between the Mother Country and the Dominions to be the same after the war as they were before the war? Are we to continue imagining that no connection exists between the safety of the nation and its commercial and industrial prosperity? Or are we "to have a policy that will make the word 'Empire' mean something more than it has meant hitherto?" Our existence depends, as Mr. Hughes very truly points out, "not only on our naval but on our industrial supremacy."

He warns us against putting our trust in "men who regard *laissez faire* and free trade as doctrines handed down by the Deity which it would be impious to refute." For advisers such as these he has no use. An imperialist in its widest and truest meaning, he is anxious to see the future trade of the British Empire placed on a sound and permanent footing, and he thinks, and rightly thinks, that the lines of that policy should be settled without delay. He says, and rightly says, that "the producers of Britain and the Empire ought to be told, and to be told now, what the trade policy of Britain after the war is going to be, so that they can make their arrangements accordingly." And he adds, with a foresight which the Government of this country will do well to note, that "if we are to attack this question effectively there must be organisation. We must attack it systematically and scientifically. We must see what Britain and the various parts of the Empire can produce,

not only with commercial but with national profit. We must exploit every opportunity, develop every resource. Above all, we must see that our industries are not dependent upon the raw materials which our potential or actual enemies control."

We are on the eve of an economic conference with the Allies, but no trade policy for the British Empire has yet been formulated. It is an open secret that the teachings of the economic school in which many of our statesmen have graduated in no way appeal to the self-governing communities oversea, nor are the opinions of these statesmen in trade matters those held by the great majority of people in this country. That being so, it is not surprising that doubt exists both here and in the Dominions as to what course will be taken by our representatives at the Paris Conference. This anxiety has been somewhat lessened by the announcement that Mr. Bonar Law is to accompany Mr. Runciman to the French capital, but many of us had hoped that advantage would have been taken of the visit of Mr. Hughes to include him in the representation, especially in view of the fact that Australian opinion on the question of economic union coincides so closely with that of the sister Dominions. I am afraid the Government have still to realise the true meaning of industrial supremacy. They have not yet grasped that henceforward we must be a self-contained Empire not only in name but in being. Never again must German goods have free access to this country, if indeed they have access at all. Never again must Germany control our raw materials. After the war there must be but one policy—Britain for the British and British work for British workmen.

Closely connected with an Empire policy are the steps which Australia is taking to increase production and assist development. One of the reasons that brought Mr. Hughes here at the present time was to see the British and American laboratories, in order, as he said to me in the course of conversation, "that we may organise our primary and secondary industries. It is our intention to establish in Australia a national system of research laboratories. By this means we shall keep ourselves up-to-date with the rest of the world, we shall improve our methods of production, and advance the development of our resources generally. The establishment of these laboratories we consider to be the corner-stone of any successful scheme of organisation." Australia, then, has begun to put her house in order. So far this country has done nothing in that direction. No wonder

Mr. Hughes feels anxious about the delay. What we have to do is not only to think Imperially but to act Imperially. As he very pertinently reminds us, "We have the means at our disposal, and we can cement for ever a Federation—Empire—call it what you will—that will ensure the peace of the world." Surely this is a matter not for to-morrow but for to-day. Why, then, do the Government hesitate?

In the current issue of the *Fortnightly Review* I have dealt with the Government scheme, or rather suggested scheme, for the settlement of ex-sailors and ex-soldiers on the land in this country. To my way of thinking it only touches the fringe of a great question, only scratches the surface. A scheme involving an expenditure of £20,000,000, extending over a period of three to four years, is on foot in Australia for the settlement of ex-soldiers. Another scheme is being considered by the Dominion Government of Canada. My proposal is to amalgamate all three schemes. An initial difficulty presents itself in the case of Australia owing to the States controlling the land and not the Commonwealth, but Mr. Hughes assures me, if assurance be necessary, that he has not the least doubt that the State Governments "will look with very favourable eyes on the settlement of ex-service men from this country." Referring to the general question of emigration and immigration after the war he said "these are matters of transcending importance both to Great Britain and the Dominions." But he was careful to lay stress on the fact that what Australia wanted was settlers on the land. "Our cities are already congested." On the matter, so often put forward in these pages, that emigration and immigration should be financed and controlled jointly by the Home and Dominion Governments acting together he was most sympathetic, and went so far as to say that if any common plan could be arranged he agreed with me it should be adopted.

Everyone will regret Mr. Hughes' illness and wish him a speedy recovery. He had very kindly promised to look through the proofs of his speeches himself, but his sudden indisposition made this impossible. I am unable therefore to present them in the complete form I had hoped, but apart from the disability of personal revision they constitute a valuable record of Mr. Hughes' views on some of the most urgent problems arising out of the war.

THE EDITOR.

THE SPEECHES.

I.*

THE WAR: BEFORE AND AFTER.

IN the early stages of the war there was quite naturally very confused ideas about its causes, its scope, its duration, and its consequences. To many in this country and throughout the Empire it came as a veritable bolt from the blue. Some had browsed on the Elysian fields of Pacificism. Through the green glasses of that soothing doctrine those monstrous preparations for war which met the eye at every turn became either non-existent or the natural and proper appurtenances to a temple of peace. The real world, resounding with the ceaseless clangour of armament factories, in which preparation for Armageddon was the dominant note, simply did not exist for these amiable persons.

They lived in a world of their own; the Hague Tribunal was their Pantheon. They did not see the incongruity of a temple of peace hedged about by ten million bayonets. To these men the war came not so much as a shock as an intellectual insult or as a gross and improper violation of some great natural law like the law of gravity. To them war was impossible. Even when war, sweeping over the earth like some stupendous cataract of burning lava, threatened to destroy all mankind, they babbled of peace as if it still existed, or at worst could be restored by a mere mental effort.

But apart from the pacifists, very many failed to realise what this war meant. They tried to interpret it in the light of our little war, writ larger. There could be no greater error. For this war is not as other wars. This war touches the Empire at every point of its multifarious activities. It is not only a war in which our professional army is alone concerned, not only a war for national existence; it is a war for commercial and industrial as well as national supremacy. It is certain that the hope upon which Germany fed, that place in the sun to which with covetous eyes she turned, postulated not only national but commercial and industrial domination of the earth. It was this bait which Germany's great financial, commercial and industrial interests eagerly swallowed, this is the hope which now alone buoys them up. They saw in war a short and safe road to those luscious

* Speech delivered at the House of Commons at a luncheon given by the United Kingdom Branch of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Mr. Bonar Law, Secretary of State for the Colonies, presiding.

commercial pastures occupied by decadent nations grown flabby by luxurious living.

We may be sure that the great commercial interests of Germany drank in with avid zest the teachings of Treitschke and Bernhardi. They were not concerned with their justification, but on their practical consequences. For years they have known that war was inevitable; they were under no delusions about pacificism. They knew that Germany was deliberately preparing to rob the civilised world. They were willing to help to find the money for the job because they believed there were glorious opportunities for loot and no risks. But things have not gone quite as those excellent gentlemen expected. The peaceful citizens who were to be summarily clubbed and robbed put up an unexpectedly good fight. The time when victory was to have crowned the arms of the Vaterland; when, the butchery over, the brave fellows were to have bivouacked in St. James's Park—the most convenient centre from which to loot London—has long since passed. And, worse still, instead of victory being nearer, it is farther off than ever. A frightful vision of failure now rises before their bloodshot eyes; they are bedewed with a sweat as cold as death. They recall the words of that *enfant terrible*, Bernhardi, "World power or downfall." And while "downfall" for them seemed as remote as the Greek Calends, it was a phrase that filled their mouths with a warm glow like alcohol.

But now! It is different. "Downfall" is a word pregnant with frightful possibilities for them as well as for us. Germany's high finance rests upon the assumption that she will be victorious. Even if she won the position would not be altogether enviable. Defeat spells plain bankruptcy, ruin, chaos. Suppose the Allies elect to keep Germany out of their markets, what then? It will take years for Germany to make up her losses, to say nothing of indemnities for the appalling destruction inflicted upon Belgium, France, Serbia, Russia, and Britain, even if those wide spheres of trade in which Germany found profitable employment are still open to her. But suppose half the world closed to her. What will be the commercial and industrial position of Germany after this war? All depends upon the Allies.

Largely it depends upon the British Empire. (What is to be our commercial and industrial policy after the war? Are we to allow—to use the shibboleths of an economic doctrine which has been regarded with almost sacred veneration in Britain for three-quarters of a century—"trade to flow along its natural channels" after the war, or are we to follow the example of all other nations and pursue a policy which will enable us to exercise such control over trade as consideration for national safety of the country demand? This is a question of transcendent importance,

for upon it not only the welfare of these islands depend, and their future relations with Britain overseas, but the future of Germany herself. Let me set out the position as I see it.

When war broke out the people of the Empire met it in a spirit worthy of their forefathers. After more than eighteen months' war we have no reason to be ashamed of the name we bear. *Civis Britannicus sum* is a designation of which we may boast with dignified pride. The British nation met the war in spirit of resolute calm. At the outset, when the scope, duration and objectives of the war were not clearly understood, many people took as their watchword "Business as usual during the war." I have referred to this not only because it reveals that characteristic trait of the Englishman, who is really an emotional being, but considering any manifestation of emotion as very bad form, cloaks it with an exterior of stoic calm, but because it brings us to the fundamentals of the question with which I am dealing.

As a statement of facts and a declaration of policy, "business as usual during the war" is a most unfortunate phrase; for it is as certain as anything can be that the Great War has made it quite impossible for business to be carried on as usual in very many industries. I do not know precisely what percentage of the effective producers of the country is in the army, but if we add those millions of persons who in normal times are engaged in carrying on business as usual, but are now engaged in munitions work or assisting in one way or another the army and navy, we shall find a very considerable percentage of the effective producers of the nation is so engaged.

Then in normal times a great many persons are engaged in trade with Germany and Austria. This trade is of course completely interrupted. Many industries using the products of Germany and Austria as raw materials for their products, e.g. aniline dyes, are more or less completely at a standstill. Then our principal industry, sea carriage of goods, is very seriously affected. Our mercantile marine, including our fishing fleets, has been largely requisitioned by the authorities. It is obvious "business as usual" is impossible. But if business as usual were possible, it could only be carried on at the sacrifice of our national safety and honour. For our duty in this great crisis is not to carry on business as usual but to subordinate everything to the supreme duty of fighting the enemy.

But there is another side to this question to which I particularly wish to direct attention. Is "business as usual" desirable in any case? What did business as it was carried on in this country before the war mean? Now I know that I am treading on very thin ice. Great interests are involved in this matter, but

the safety of the nation is above all. What was the commercial situation before war broke out? Was it one of which Britishers could be proud; was it one compatible with our national safety and our national honour? Mark this: the standard by which I am testing the commercial position before the war is not that of commercial profit but of national honour and safety. I hope and believe it is at least by this standard that all things in these islands and throughout the Empire are to be tested.

Because I am more familiar with the conditions existing in Australia than those in Great Britain, I will take the commercial and industrial position in Australia before the war. I believe it did not substantially differ from that existing in Great Britain. The progress made by Australia during this last decade has been prodigious. Broadly we have nearly doubled our trade during that period. Our manufactures have increased to the same extent. In every direction Australia had made great strides. I mention these things only lest it might be thought that, tried by commercial and industrial standards, all has not been quite satisfactory with Australia. Viewed from the outside all seemed very well indeed with us as it was with you. When war broke out it was seen we had been living in a fool's paradise.

As you know, Australia is a great mineral producing country. Gold, silver, lead, copper, zinc and tin are found in great profusion. The great Broken Hill mines are known in every civilised country. Australia produces nearly one-fifth of the world's lead and zinc, and great quantities of copper. The annual value of these base metals, exclusive of the precious metals with which they are mixed, is very great. They mean much to Australia. In their production many thousands of workmen are employed. They are the raw materials of a thousand and one forms of industrial enterprises; they are essential to industrial greatness. They are also essential to national safety. Modern warfare rests upon a metallic basis. The nation which does not produce or cannot secure a sufficiency of these metals cannot defend herself. If their control passes into the hands of one nation which seeks to dominate the world, the others are seriously, nay dangerously, handicapped. That much is obvious.

Well, when war broke out and Australia, in common with the rest of the Empire, rallied to the standard, it was found that the great metal industry of Australia, the source to which the Empire might have looked for a supply adequate even for its abnormal needs, was so completely dominated by German capital and German influence that the choice seemed to be only between complete paralysis of the industry, shutting down of the mines, the throwing out of employment of thousands of workmen, or

supplying these metals to those agencies of Germany through whom alone the Australian companies were permitted by their contracts to sell their products, and through whom alone Britain could buy them.

The German agencies of whom I speak were not situated in Germany but in London! They were—legally considered—British firms. Actually, they were for all practical purposes German. Under the cloak of naturalisation our enemies were within the very heart of our citadel. For it is literally true—although it has sometimes been questioned—that for nearly twelve months after we were at war with Germany, the British Government could only buy Australian lead—or any other—from a German firm! It may be said that it was an English firm. Legally it was and is so: in essence it was German. It was a tentacle of that great German metal octopus that, with its heart at Frankfort-on-Main—the headquarters of the Merton group—had got the earth in its grip. I am not concerned with the precise nature of the relations between the heart of the Frankfort octopus and its London tentacles. They are immaterial. I am not concerned with appearance but with reality.

That in the great German commercial and industrial conquest of the earth the way of the German was that of the serpent and the dove, I know very well. They cooed soothingly, but wormed themselves into the heart of our citadels. They always assumed the nationality of the country they intended to despoil and betray. It was such a ridiculously easy thing to impose upon the generous hospitality which we extended to all the nations of the earth. In England, the Frankfort group is represented by an "English" firm; in the United States the octopus calls itself the American Metal Company; in Africa, the African Metal Company; and in Australia the Australian Metal Company. What is in a name? Nothing! Or in an oath? Nothing! They took the name best suited to serve their purpose and the oath of naturalisation as lightly as other men say "Good-morning," meaning nothing. The certificate of naturalisation was to them a scrap of paper.

I have mentioned lead and zinc but only because they are typical. When war broke out German influence controlled all copper interests: it owned or controlled the only spelter works in Great Britain. And this German taint ran like a cancer throughout the fair body of British trade and commerce. And it was daily spreading. What an intolerable insult to our pride as British citizens it was and is: that Germany should have such a hold over our trade, that we should have actually been compelled to buy the raw material for munitions from German agencies at prices practically fixed by them; and that we should have had

to pay £90 to £100 for spelter in America while Germany was able to get it at £30. And this spelter which she got at £30 was largely from Australian ores. To kill Englishmen, and Australians too, with ammunition made from Australian ores and at the same time to compel the British Government to buy its ammunition through German agencies at three times the normal price was admittedly a master-stroke.

Well, what are we going to do about it? To bewail the past is futile, but not to learn wisdom from the past is criminal.

For years Germany abused our foolishly generous hospitality, under the cloak of naturalisation she has hidden the dagger of espionage. She has insidiously wormed her way into the citadels of our commerce and industry. Insatiate in her ambitions, she threw off the veil and sought to conquer the whole world at one blow. She has failed to do so. She went out to grasp in one predatory bloodhound claw the trade of the world. Let us of this great Empire resolutely determine that, come what may, Germany shall never batten upon our pastures. The world is wide, let her go where she will, trade with any, spy upon whom she pleases, but not with us. Root out German influence by every means at our disposal. The sharp edge of the law must be invoked for this purpose, the concentrated persistent and systematic energy of the whole people brought to bear upon it. Let us purge Britain from this thing, and adopt a policy at once compatible with national safety and national greatness.

I hold very decided opinions upon the relations between the Mother Country and the Dominions after the war. I hope you will have a policy which will make the word "Empire" mean something more than it has meant hitherto. We have the means at our disposal, and we can cement for ever a Federation, Empire—call it what you will—which will ensure the peace of the world. You have gone on imagining that there was no relation between the safety of the nation and its commercial and industrial prosperity. Great Britain, whose dependence for existence turned on the possession of ample raw material for munitions, bound herself body and soul to the great German octopus which controlled copper, zinc and lead. That is a policy of national suicide.

(After this war I hope Great Britain will have a policy compatible with her national safety and her national greatness. We in Australia have done something to show our earnestness in tearing out the cancer of German influence. We have annulled every contract, we have cancelled every trade-mark and design belonging to Germany. We have given notice to every company that they must within three months from January 16 put out every German shareholder, whether naturalised or not.) I speak

with warmth, but we should be worse than false to ourselves if we did not learn something from the manner in which we have been betrayed.

A policy for the Empire is many-phased, but before you build up you must destroy. You must make it plain to the world that you are to destroy the control of British trade by Germans. The great commercial magnates of Germany went out for world-power or downfall. After eighteen months of war downfall is beginning to mean something to them. Let them know that whenever the issue of this war is decided their opportunities for world-domination or the domination of British trade are gone for ever.

II.*

WANTED: AN EMPIRE POLICY.

It is said that the issue of this war is "World Power or Downfall" for Germany or England. No doubt the result of a decisive victory by Germany would be that the mighty Empire to which we belong would sink to the level of a second-rate Power, at any rate, temporarily. But the supreme issue of this war is not national, nor even economic, but moral.

The issue which this war will decide is whether Might or Right shall rule in this world. That is the great issue which vitally interests the whole world. But there are other issues of the greatest possible importance to this nation. I ventured to deal with one of these quite recently. I pointed out to what extent our national safety had been endangered through our policy of *laissez faire*. I said that the entire fabric of British industry was being honeycombed by German enterprise, and that this was not only an intolerable insult to our pride as a great commercial nation—the pioneer of modern industry—but also a dangerous menace to our national safety. I said that in my opinion German influence in British trade and British national life should be ruthlessly destroyed.

This is no easy task, for German influence has permeated the fair body of Britain like the roots of a foul cancer. It controls enormously powerful interests; it manifests itself in a hundred ways; it is Protean in shape. But its most favourite and most dangerous disguise is the cloak of naturalisation. It is very thorough. It not only changes its nationality, but frequently its name. Eichengruen becomes Edward—Von Goltz, Blackwood. To eradicate this influence, to sweep Britain as clean from German influence as Germany is from British, is no light task. It re-

* Speech delivered at the dinner given by the British Imperial Chamber of Commerce representing the Chambers of Commerce of the Empire, Mr. Stanley Machin presiding in the place of Lord Desborough.

quires resolution and persistence and ears deaf to the cries of the sirens. No doubt there will be some protest against such a policy, not only from those directly affected, but by Englishmen. Many great interests will be alarmed at the prospect it conjures up. Their timid souls shrink from any disturbance of the existing order of things; they would rather die of the disease than endure the operation.

There are many, too, who conceive that this war can be fought and won without resorting to such heroic measures. They are patriotic, but not unreasonably so. They wish that England may win, but they do not wish it so much that all else—not only life but their wealth, their business—is as dross. But believe me, it is not in such a spirit that victory in this great struggle can be achieved. Victory will crown our arms only when we bend every energy to this supreme purpose, subordinating all other interests, sweeping aside all things that hinder us. If thine eye offend thee, pluck it out. It is a hard saying, but if we would achieve national salvation we must pluck out not only German influence in our trade but many things in our political, economic and social life, that for generations have been part of the warp and woof of our national life. For this is not only our hour of supreme trial but of our great opportunity.

And this brings me to the point I wish to specially deal with this evening. I have said that we must cut out the cancer of German influence in our trade and industry. It is a policy of destruction. It is imperative, it is urgent, but it is only preliminary. We must not only destroy but we must build up. What is to be the policy of the British Empire after the war? Perhaps I shall be told that this is not the time to raise this question. I do not agree with such a view. I admit that this question cannot be completely settled now, but it is not too soon to raise it because there is much preliminary work to be done, many things to be considered, many parties to be consulted. The British Empire does not consist, as some—I think I may say so without offence—seem to think of Great Britain alone. The great Oversea Dominions, which are in all save name independent nations, have vast territories to develop, great interests to consider.

In twenty-five years, at the present rate of increase in Great Britain, and Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, the population of the Dominions will not be very far short of that of Great Britain to-day; in fifty years it will have outstripped that of Britain at that time. The problems that confront them are complex and difficult, they desire to advance to their great destinies hand in hand with each other and with Great Britain. The question of what is to be the trade and general policy of Britain after this war is one of vital importance to the Dominions,

and some indication of what that policy is to be ought to be disclosed without delay. For the future trade policy of the Empire will depend largely on that of Britain. And you cannot effect a radical change in the trade relations of an Empire like ours in a week or two. It is a problem intricate and difficult, taking much time to solve. Many interests have to be considered, many peoples consulted, and necessarily this is a work which will take much time. It may be said that all this can be done after the war. It may be admitted that much of the details of the policy—if we are to have one at all—cannot be settled during the war, but to postpone consideration of the question, or neglect to lay down the broad general principles and the foundations of the new order until after the war is to make the probabilities of any change of policy very remote.

I have said that the question is one bristling with difficulties. It is indeed an economic revolution that is necessary, and a less radical change would not serve, and we ought to face the position. Clashing interests have to be harmonised, not only interests in Great Britain but in and between the Oversea Dominions. In normal times the chains of tradition might have proved too strong. But now the public mind is plastic, the scales have fallen from our eyes. We have come to see things in a truer perspective; to distinguish amidst a host of trivialities the things that really matter. And because of that there is hope for us.

I do not intend to do more now than to suggest the broad principles upon which a trade policy for the Empire might be based. I shall not waste a breath upon the academic side of what is termed the fiscal question. It is not the respective virtues of Free Trade or Protection that concern me, but the great question of how best to develop the resources and trade of our great Empire in a manner compatible with our national safety, and the economic and social welfare of the people. This much I may say. I certainly approach the matter without bias against what is called Free Trade. When fiscalism was a live question in Australia, I was a Free Trader of free traders. The 'Wealth of Nations' was my bible; Adam Smith was my prophet. But it was always disconcerting me to see how blind the world has been to the great virtues of Free Trade. Tried by this standard it would appear that Britain was the only country in the world that was in step!

But if it were a question of trade only affecting our pockets the fiscal question might fairly be left to settle itself. But it reaches down into the very roots of our lives. You cannot proceed upon the assumption that the economic policy of a nation has no relation to its national welfare. The relations

between the two are inseparable, intimate, and complex. This fact is fundamental; to ignore it is not only to invite but to ensure national destruction. For a time the trade of a nation that treats trade as if it had no connection with national safety may make great strides, as did ours, but there comes a day of reckoning to such nations as it has come to us. I am no more concerned to-day that a case can be made out in favour of allowing trade to flow along what are termed "natural channels" than I am to deny the virtues of the Spartan method of producing a virile nation by exposing its weaklings to certain death. Much might be said for both, but modern sentiment is definitely against the one and inexorable circumstances of the modern world against the other.

The relations between modern trade interests and national welfare are so intimate and complex that they cannot be treated as though they were not parts of one organic whole. No sane person now suggests that the foreign policy of the country should be dealt with by the *laissez faire* policy. No one would dare openly to contend that the national policy should be one of "drift," although I admit that there are many most excellent persons who by their attitude seem to resent any attempt to steer the ship of State along a definite course as being an impious attempt to usurp the functions of Providence, whose special business they conceive this to be, and I want to make one thing quite clear, that what I am advocating is not merely a change of fiscal policy, not merely or even necessarily what is called tariff reform, although this may, probably will, incidentally follow, but a fundamental change in our ideas of government as applied to economic and national matters.

The fact is that the whole concept of modern statesmanship needs revision. But England has been, and is, the chief of sinners. Quite apart from the idea of a self-contained Empire there is the idea of Britain as an organised nation. And the British Empire as an organised Empire; organised for trade, for industry, for economic justice, for national defence, for the preservation of the world's peace, for the protection of the weak against the strong. That is a noble ideal. It ought to be; it must be ours.

Germany is to-day the best organised nation in the world. Before the war, indeed, she was the only one. It is true she is organised for the dreadful purpose of destruction; that she has perverted science, mechanical invention, and indeed all human knowledge, to this one awful end. But she is organised. And it is to this fact that she owes her tremendous strength. She presents to the world an impressive spectacle of a great nation whose myriad activities move in response to a settled purpose,

to carry out which every individual in that great nation consecrates his whole energies and his life. There is no aimless rushing hither and thither, no dissipation of energy through divided control or lack of control. There is one leader and all men follow him. And the efforts of every individual are systematised; all are cogs in a monstrous and marvellously intricate machine, which moves as the supreme master wills. Every resource of science, of mechanical invention, has been organised. The ganglia of the national organism are highly developed, the correlation between them complete, the whole organism is streaked with nerve tissues. In short, Germany is an organised nation. Its efforts are systematised. Every man has his allotted task. They not only carefully avail themselves of the services of the highest scientific and expert minds, they create facilities by which these may best achieve results.

In Germany every need of the people is known, every means to supply it exploited. Before the war every problem affecting industry, commerce, health, national safety was systematically attacked by the best brains of Germany. The advance made by Germany during the last twenty-five years is the best proof of the value of her methods. Since war broke out Germany has carried organisation to a still higher pitch of perfection. Again the results speak for themselves. But we need not turn to our enemy to learn the value of organisation. We can see it in France. Its fruits are now to be seen in Britain. When war broke out France found that her munition works were unorganised. With that spirit of sacrifice, of resolution, of thoroughness which has marked our chivalrous and great Ally in this her hour of supreme peril, she set to work on the task of organisation. And she has done wonders. As for ourselves, we know very well how we stood until Mr. Lloyd George took the business in hand. We stood literally on the crumbling edge of destruction. Thanks to his Gargantuan labours and to the glorious spirit of our people we may venture to breathe easier. The manufacture of munitions and armaments and impedimenta of war is being organised. The manhood of Britain is being organised.

Our hearts leap with exultation at the inspiring spectacle, our blood sings in our veins as we look and see Britain the unready thus arrayed ready to meet, and resolute to defeat the foe. But for the British Navy where should we have been; where would civilisation have been? The least we can say of the Navy is that it has saved Britain. But the truth is that it has saved the civilised world! Behind that impregnable wall of triple steel we have had opportunity to remedy in some fashion our lack of preparation. But is there a man amongst

us who does not pale as he looks back and sees the awful gulf which he has missed by a hair's breadth : who does not rejoice that there were men amongst us who shut their ears to the cries for a smaller navy? Think of the hundreds of millions we are spending to-day on this awful war ; think of the spectacle of the civilised world wallowing in blood, straining every energy in this awful work of mutual destruction. Think of the holocaust of lives, the fearful sufferings, and then think that had Britain taken heed of Lord Roberts' warning voice, had we been as well prepared on land as we were on the sea, the peace of the world would have been in all probability unbroken.

Miracles do not repeat themselves. Let us take this solemn lesson to heart. Let us, resolutely putting aside all considerations of party, class, and doctrine, without delay proceed to devise a policy for the British Empire, a policy which shall cover every phase of our national, economic, and social life ; which shall develop the tremendous resources and yet be compatible with those ideals of liberty and justice for which our ancestors fought and died, and for which the men of our race now in this, the greatest of all wars, are fighting and dying in a fashion worthy of their breeding. Let us no longer pursue a policy of drift, but set sail upon a definite course as becomes a mighty nation to whom has been entrusted the destiny of one-fourth of the whole human race.

III.*

ONE PEOPLE, ONE DESTINY.

I am very glad that you invited me to be present to-night, because it gives me an opportunity of stating again what is the very inspiration of our life at present and the burden of all our immediate hopes and desires and activities—our determination to save from the onslaught of barbarous Prussia our civilisation and our liberties. Many of the members of this society are Americans. I do not think this is the time to judge America's attitude towards this war. For the help that has been given we are of course distinctly grateful. To the American members of this society I should say only two things. The first is that we in Australia face the United States across the Pacific, and we in the past have liked her well and longed for closer friendship. The second thing I wish to say to Americans is that we are winning—we shall win. I speak as one from the frontier of Anglo-Saxonism when I say that to those who know the British Empire, and the resolute men and women who inhabit it, there is not a shadow of doubt that the vast might of

* Speech delivered at the Pilgrims' Club, Lord Bryce presiding.

our Empire and of our race, as it will and can be organised, will be invincible and completely victorious.

This dreadful war was forced upon us. By no act of ours did we provoke it; for no people desired war less than those who make up that congeries of nations which we designate by the term "British Empire." We were, and are by instinct a peaceful people. We may be indeed best described as a civilised people. No better and no clearer distinction can be drawn between us and that great nation with which we are now locked in deadly struggle than the fact that the British nation stands for the highest ideals of civilisation. What the other stands for their dreadful deeds since war began and the vile doctrines upon which their nation for forty years has battered say. It is very certain that there is not an ideal cherished by us that finds an answering echo in the minds of the enemy. With them Might is Right. There is between the ideals of Britain and Germany a gulf as wide as divides heaven from hell, right from wrong.

The issues at stake are vital and the fate of the world hangs upon them. And the peoples of the earth, although some may look on with an air of indifference and hold themselves aloof, are being enveloped, against their will, in this great struggle, which like some great tidal wave, sweeps resistlessly over the whole earth, and cannot be dammed here or there by the act of any man or any nation. The destiny of the world is to-day trembling in the balance, and every nation, every man must make up his mind on which side he shall take his stand.

This war will leave the world very different from what it found it. There were many of us drifting along pleasant profitable channels. The call of duty fell dully on our ears. We turned our backs on the purifying waters of self-sacrifice. We thought only of pleasure, or at best of privileges rather than duties. This war has come at once as a mighty spur, a sedative, a corrective—perhaps needed by our race for its salvation. At any rate it has come. It will profoundly affect the destiny of our race: it will profoundly affect the destiny of the whole world.

If by any malign stroke of fate the issue should turn against us, the clock of civilisation would be set back a hundred years. The outlook of mankind would be profoundly changed. Evil would have overcome good. Force would have trampled upon Right. We should fall back into what, although it might be disguised under the thin veneer of Kultur, would nevertheless be a real state of barbarism; for barbarism does not differ from civilisation in appearance, but in reality. Not by their garments alone do civilised men differ from barbarians, but in their thoughts, in their outlook upon life, in their conduct, and by the acceptance of the standard of right not might.

We have gone out to battle with the enemy. Out of evil cometh good. The war fell upon an Empire menaced with turmoil. But at the first rattling of the sabre, turmoil died down, dissensions ceased, we were a united people. There is not, from Dan to Beersheba, from one end of this mighty Empire to the other, a place where the people do not stand four-square against their common enemy. This war has welded together by bonds that time will not dissolve, that nothing but our own incredible folly can wholly break asunder—this war has welded as if by magic that loose federation known as the British Empire into one homogeneous nation.

I have come here as the representative of a Dominion after some eighteen months of war. During that time the Dominions, Canadians, South Africans, New Zealanders and Australians, have on the field of battle proved that the ancient valour of their sires still burns in their veins. One and all have proved themselves worthy of their breeding. They have realised clearly that this war is not one that concerns Britain only, but is a war which affects our very existence as free men. I have come here as the chosen representative of the most democratic Government in the world. I stand here as a representative of labour, and all the ideals that you and I jointly cherish—and those ideals of organised labour—all these, I say, rest upon the foundations of liberty, and must fall if we lose this battle.

We in Australia have fought, are fighting, and shall continue to fight to the end for those free institutions which to free men are dearer than life itself. We fight not for material wealth, not for aggrandisement of Empire, but for the right for every nation, small as well as large, to live its own life in its own way. We fight for those free institutions upon which democratic government rests. In Australia what the people say, goes: whatever they choose to make, that they can make. But in the country against which we are fighting to-day, the will of the German proletariat, though ten millions, though fifty millions stand behind it, is as nothing beside the ukase of the Kaiser.

Liberty does not dare to venture into that cold and chilling atmosphere. I do not speak of that poor, pallid cadaver of liberty that slinks through the land surrounded by the Prussian Guards. Our ancestors have fought and died for liberty, and shall we, if needs be, do less? We fight, therefore, in this war for liberty. We fight for those free democratic institutions without which life as we know it would lose its flavour. We should live, yes. We could have purchased an ignoble peace had we wished to do—to bend the knee to Baal. If we had but abased ourselves before this mighty Moloch all would have been well. They were prepared to treat Canada—South Africa—as

separate nations. They were prepared to hold out the hand of friendship to Australia. Yes; they were prepared to deal with us as the man-eating tiger deals with each victim in turn.

But although we are a peace-loving people, although we have slumbered in this lotus land for many years, we have not wholly lost the valour of our forefathers, and Australians have proved themselves. To-day whatever Germany may not know, she does know that when she fights England she fights not merely the forty-five million people in England, but she fights those millions of free men scattered throughout the world, who look to Britain as the cradle of their race, men of adventure, men of resolution, who will fight to the bitter end alongside of those from the land of their sire, to whom they owe those liberties and those ideals that make our country what it is. And here, on St. Patrick's Day, let us pay a tribute to the Irish people and the Irish troops. May I, as an Australian, pay a special tribute to the thousands of young Irish-Australians in the Australian forces, who have put the cause of liberty above life itself.

I feel I stand here to-day in the reflected glory of the Australian soldier. I never speak, I cannot speak, of their bravery but I choke with emotion. We speak with pride, and rightly, of the Charge of Balaclava. There men went out in the broad light of day with all the impetus and stimulus that a knee-to-knee charge on the gallop gives to men. But the story of the Eighth Light Horse of Australia is one by which the Charge of the Light Brigade must pale its fires. The glory of these men has yet to be fully told, and will never die.

(There were some five hundred of them, and they were to attack in three waves. They were given their orders six, eight, ten hours before. Every man knew that it was certain death. They went. They made their preparations. They handed to those who were to remain in the trench their poor brief messages of farewell, and they went out, wave after wave, to certain death. At the whistle the first wave leaped from the trench; most of them fell back dead upon their fellows who were waiting their turn in the trench. In the face of this awful sight the second line leaped out to meet what they knew was certain death. Of these only five or six remained on their feet after they had gone ten or twelve yards. The third wave undaunted followed in their turn. All the wounded lay exposed to the pitiless machine-gun fire of the Turks, which poured a veritable hail of death into their poor, bleeding bodies. The man who got farthest was the colonel; he got fifty yards. There were eighteen officers; out of those who went two only got back. Of the men the merest handful survived.)

We must look back in the grey dawn of history before we find

a deed parallel with that. The Spartans of Thermopylae have left a name imperishable, which shall remain when the pyramids shall crumble to dust, but surely what these men did that day—these citizen-soldiers of a new nation, the last but one in the family of the great British Empire, what these men did, too, will never die.

We have fought and we are fighting this battle as if it were a battle of life and death. It is a battle of life and death. We did not enter it lightly, nor shall we quit it while life remains in us. Australia has sent out of the country, to the European or Asiatic battlefields, up to the first week in March, 150,000 men. We have enlisted to the first week in March 268,000 men. We shall have enlisted by the beginning of June 300,000 men. The Australian is coming out to do battle for the country that made him what he is. Australia is a great country. It is, indeed, a continent. It is a country of tremendous distances. It is a country in which free men live and can thrive. It is a country in which men imbibe the spirit of liberty with every pore; in which men of necessity take a wider outlook than those whose environment is more cramped. It is a country in which men would rather die than lose liberty.

They are coming out, these men, nurtured in a free air of a great land, with bodies magnificently developed and spirits unbroken and unbreakable; they are coming out to do battle for the country that made them. They are showing to-day the mettle of their pasture. They are fighting for everything they hold dear by land and sea. Australia has done and is doing what it can. They are fighting this battle in deadly earnest; it is a battle to the death. It is a battle from which we are to emerge triumphant, with our great Empire welded insolubly together, or in which we must go down, with all prospects of achieving our destiny for ever damned.

The submarine menace is still with us, but it is a menace which has shot its bolt. It has been powerless to affect more than 1 per cent. of the mighty mercantile marine of Britain. From the most distant seas her argosies cleave their way undismayed. To her shores they are going from distant Australia and the Canadian coast, carrying grain, provisions, ammunition, everything necessary for the successful prosecution of this war. The German navy, built for our destruction, is locked within the narrow waters of its home.

True, we were unprepared in a military sense. But this I say is—and it is all that I shall say on this point—that Australia has been able to do what she has done because we adopted as the corner-stone of our democratic edifices the system of compulsory military training. We believe that there is but one way by which

a nation, being free, can remain so, and that is that every man shall not only be willing to defend his country, but be able to do so. And we think that if it is right—as it surely is—that a democracy should educate its citizens so that the franchise shall be wisely exercised—for government by the many if the many are not educated is a doubtful good—so we think that the State should train the citizen so that he may be able to defend his country, his homes, and his liberties.

The defence of one's country is the primary duty of citizenship. It is the first duty of free men. Two years before the outbreak of war we had established in Australia a system of universal military training. To this we owe that complex and widespread organisation for training officers, non-commissioned officers, for manufacturing small arms, ammunition, clothing and so on without which we should have been almost helpless in this great struggle. A small community of under 5,000,000 of people, yet we have been able to train, to equip from head to foot, a great army of men. It is a great thing, and one which we may mention with pride and satisfaction that Canada and Australia have together put into the field nearly twice the number of the original British Expeditionary Force.

I have no doubt, nor has any Britisher or Australian any doubt, of what the result will be. Britain and her Allies at the outset of this fight were caught at a disadvantage. We were like peaceful citizens taken unaware by bandits. But we are gradually mustering our tremendous resources. We are turning our men of peace into men of war. We are gathering against our great opponent—and I pay every tribute to the bravery of the great German nation, to its tenacity, to its power of initiative, which we thought crushed out of it; I pay all that ungrudgingly. We are building up against it, massing up against it, the tremendous resources of a free people, who will die to the last man rather than be defeated.

And we shall win. We have encircled this tremendous and ferocious foe with a wall of steel, which, despite her most frantic efforts, she cannot break.

IV.*

ORGANISATION AN IMPERIAL NECESSITY.

It is with singular pleasure and satisfaction that I find myself to-day in the City of London. To us in distant parts of the Empire, the great City of London fits into our fancy as the majestic centre of our imperial industry and trade. We tell our

* Speech delivered at a luncheon given by the City Carlton Club, Mr. Balfour, First Lord of the Admiralty, presiding.

children of its greatness, we try to teach them those traditions of honest dealing built up here, we picture to them the majesty of its buildings and its institutions. You will well appreciate the feelings that come to me now, as twelve thousand miles from those Australian cities we have built and hold now for the Empire, I stand in this greatest of all British cities amongst men controlling tremendous forces of labour, finance and industry.

You can well imagine the feelings of emotion and pride that have filled me at the quiet courage and resolution with which the men and women in the heart of the Empire are facing the present position. After twenty months of the great war, in which the destiny of our Empire, of our race, and indeed of the civilised world is involved, the temper of the men of Britain is like steel. The spirit which everywhere prevails throughout the Empire of unfaltering resolution or cheerful endurance, and above all the awakening—belated but complete—to the issues which the war is to decide and the urgent need for putting forth all the strength of the Empire to secure a decisive victory, is nowhere more manifest than in Britain herself and in this great City.

The eyes of the Britishers are open. A people slow to anger, unsuspicious of guile in others, foolishly generous in throwing open their land to the world, offering sanctuary to all, even to those who proposed first to exploit and then betray them, it was a considerable time before we as a nation awoke to the peril in which we stood. But though the awakening came late, it has come in earnest. Britain is thoroughly aroused. It is stirred to its very depths. Like a strong man called upon to fight for his life who casts his outer garments aside and strips to the buff, so stilted conventions, party shibboleths, cherished doctrines have been put away, and quietly but determinedly the nation is throwing its whole energy into the fight. To me what is at once the most appealing and hopeful sign is the unanimity with which the people recognise the futility of their former views of national and economic life. They are ready to scrap everything in which they formerly believed in order to ensure a decisive victory over our enemy.

I emphasise that word decisive, for nothing short of a decisive victory will avail. Germany's military power must be utterly crushed. For in no other way can the peace of the world be assured. Peace under any other conditions would be only a period of feverish preparation for another and even more fearful struggle. When the civilised world has lifted itself from the shambles it must be able to rest itself on the sweet green pastures of peace, unhaunted by the dreadful spectre of war. The British people are prepared to do anything necessary to

achieve victory. They recognise that much has to be done, not only on the field of battle but in the fields of commerce and industry. They recognise amongst the chief causes of this war the desire of Germany to wrest from Britain her industrial and commercial supremacy. We must kill the hope that still buoys Germany up; and after this war she will be unable to win back that position in our commerce and industry, by which she was not only able to exact great tribute from us in the way of profits, to oust our manufacturers altogether from many trades, and to make many more absolutely dependent upon her for the raw materials of their industries, but to imperil our national safety.

But if I have interpreted the temper of the people of the Empire aright, they have determined that the end of this war will see not only the downfall of Prussian military power but of that insidious and intolerable influence which had in very many cases reached a point when Germany actually dominated the trade, not only of this Empire, but of that of our Allies, and I rejoice with all my heart and soul to see how this feeling moved the people of Britain to-day. But this task which the people of Britain have set themselves—the extirpation root, branch and seed of German control and influence in British commerce and industry—is no light one. Its roots are deeply imbedded in the very vitals of the economic organism. The influences that are working in its interests are the more to be feared because they too frequently work beneath the surface. And the German cancer has eaten into our national body in such a fashion that we cannot cut it without seeming in some cases to cut into the healthy flesh. There are some people in this country to-day—calling themselves British citizens—who would rather we lost the war than that German trade with England and German influence in English trade should be lost. They do not say so, of course, but beneath the surface they are with Germany.

I feel sure you know of the difficulties ahead of you, but that you are prepared to let nothing stand in your way in your desire to free British trade, so that at the end of this war it will be in a position to meet the conditions that will then exist. And here we may consider for a moment what they will be. I said the other day the trade policy of Britain after the war ought to be declared without delay. I gave some reasons for this opinion. Let me now deal more closely with this matter.

What is the present effect of war upon the economic life of our country? I may be pardoned for setting it out as I see it. Some millions of men have been withdrawn altogether from production. To these must be added very large numbers who are engaged in producing munitions, clothing, etc. for those in our army and navy. All these millions are engaged

along with the millions of the Allies and of the enemy in destroying wealth and life. Production is reduced to a bare minimum and is daily a diminishing quantity. Every day the work of destruction goes on. Ships, bridges, railways, are vitally essential factors in the modern industrial world. At the end of this war the world will be very poor. It will have wasted its substance. It will have to set to work with all its might to produce more wealth. And millions of its most effective producers will be dead. It will have to build more ships, bridges, factories, manufacture machinery, produce wealth generally.

All this requires much preparation. It involves many very complex and difficult questions. Of course if Britain is simply going to get what it wants from Germany, as it did before the war, the matter is very simple. But if not, then the producers of Britain and the Empire ought to be told what the trade policy of Britain after the war is going to be, so that they can make their arrangements accordingly. And if we are to attack this question effectively there must be organisation. We must attack it systematically and scientifically. We must see what Britain and the various parts of the Empire too can produce, not only with commercial, but with national profit. We must exploit every opportunity, develop every resource.

We must above all see that our industries are not dependent upon the raw materials which our potential or actual enemies control. We ought not to commit the criminal error of building up our industries upon a foundation controlled by the enemy. Our very existence depends not only upon our naval but our mercantile supremacy. Shipbuilding, naval and mercantile marine, is the very breath of our nostrils. Guns, engines, machinery, are our vitals. What stupendous folly it was that placed in the hands of Germany the monopoly of tungsten powder, essential for hardening our steel, and the control of the metals which enter into warp and woof of our industrial life, and which are the drawbridge to national safety. We were the pioneers of the textile industry: it is one of our great industries, many millions of capital, many hundred thousands of men are employed in it, but can any words sufficiently castigate a nation who permitted the dyes, without which the industry is clipped of its wings, to be in the hands of our enemy.

The Empire is capable of providing all the sugar consumed in Britain, yet we placed ourselves in bondage to Germany and Austria, eating an inferior article because it was cheap, while fertile sugar-producing lands throughout the Empire were allowed to lie idle. (This war has rung the death knell of a policy of cheapness that took no thought for the social and industrial welfare of the workmen, that mistook mere wealth for greatness.)

no matter whether the wealth was in our hands or those of German Jews. Well, after this war, where are we going to get our sugar—from the Empire or from Germany and Austria? What new industries are we going to establish, what old ones are we going to develop? Where are we going to get the raw materials for our industries? What preparations are we going to make to cope with the great demand for ships, bridges, machinery, etc., after the war? These are questions that ought to be answered now. To wait until the end of the war is to play directly into the hands of our enemy, to help him to keep up his national spirits, to still the loud murmuring of the German people and the ever-increasing misgivings of the capitalists of Germany by the promise of brisk employment and good trade after the war.

To delay the public declaration of what our trade policy is to be is to make the work of attempting to eradicate German influence in our midst infinitely more difficult, and to make any radical change after the war impossible. To pretend otherwise is to throw dust in the eyes of the people, to play the game of Germany, to prolong the war, to indelibly stamp Britain as a nation of men no longer fit to carry the great burden of Empire. This is our hour, our opportunity, which being let slip, will pass for ever. Two things are certain, that if we are to have a change we must begin to prepare for it at once, and that the present declaration of our unalterable determination to make this change, and our preparations towards that end, would not only make easier our task of eradicating German influence here, but strike a vital blow at the very heart of our enemy which would put him to more confusion than the loss of many battles.

If our Allies follow our lead, as I believe they would, German credit and German confidence in ultimate victory would topple like a house of cards. For once the financiers, manufacturers and the people of Germany realise that the markets of the British Empire and France and Russia were permanently closed against them, the bubble of their hopes would be burst, and confusion and dismay would spread through the land, dissensions honeycomb their political structure and the spectre of revolution rear his sinister head. Let us then do this obvious, sensible and necessary thing without any further delay.

GERMAN METHODS AND GERMAN INFLUENCE

THE COMMERCIAL ASPECT

THE world is awakening to a realisation of the fact that German aims and methods are incompatible with the ordinary canons of civilised life. The lust of dominion—the desire to impose German laws, German trade, German customs, German *kultur* on all other nations is the dominating influence in the life of every subject of the Kaiser. To have achieved such a unity of purpose among the varied races composing the German Empire is a feat compelling our admiration. At the same time it is necessarily a feat which involves great danger to other States, since with Germany every other consideration is subordinated to the political motive.

Wherever we meet a German we meet a soldier of the Empire, bound rigidly by his allegiance to the central authority. Naturalisation in the case of the German is not only a farce, but a danger to the State which accepts him. Indeed it is now part of the legal status of a German that naturalisation in a foreign country does not imply the loss of citizenship of the German Empire, nor in any way loosen the bonds of discipline which render him the obedient slave of German despotism and the willing instrument of German guile. Of this the United States furnish us in German diplomatic intrigue and German incendiarism with a convincing proof.

Apart from the merely military position, Germany has for half a century aimed at the quiet permeation of the domestic polity and commerce of most of the countries of the world. This insidious infiltration has been accomplished by encouraging the migration to foreign countries of Germans who were emissaries of the State theories and propaganda. These immigrants are neither more nor less than spies, both from the commercial and the political standpoint. The clerk who accepted a nominal salary to work in a London merchant's office distinguished himself there by his assiduity and his determination to acquire every detail of the business carried on by his employers. These details he, with patriotic zeal, transmitted regularly to his real

masters in Germany. A most noteworthy member of this band was the great Rathenau, who served for a long time as an unpaid assistant in a British engineering office. In a slightly higher social sphere the university man, the financier, the expert in technics, performed the same useful functions and betrayed every confidence in order that Germany might profit from the brains of others. Not only so, but these very men laid themselves out to be on terms of friendly intimacy with officials, army men, navy men, and all others from whom State secrets might be gathered. In India and other Eastern possessions Germans were members of the best clubs, welcome at the official residences of governors and commissioners, officers and privates in the volunteer corps, and using the uniform thus obtained to facilitate their spying on defences, railways, harbours, and arsenals.

This process of peaceful penetration was begun in France as early as the pre-war period of the '60's of the last century. After that country it was extended to Belgium, which commercially has become almost an annexe of the Reichsbank and other German financial institutions. Holland and Italy were fast being gripped by the tentacles of the German octopus. Great Britain had its German waiters, its German clerks, its German merchants, its German companies—nominally British. The American Republic, with millions of its population of German ancestry, was a fruitful field for spying operations. Brazil had one State which was described to me by a Portuguese banker as "more German than Berlin." The British Overseas Dominions have experienced the same thing. In short, it would really be difficult to find any country of any importance which has not suffered the invasion of a swarm of German locusts.

Having thus provided a sufficiency of German influence in various parts of the world, it was next important to utilise the results of that influence to crush or acquire the industries which, if permitted to remain in their pristine strength, might strangle in the cradle the infant commerce of Germany. In carrying out this part of the programme Germany furnishes us on the one hand with an example worthy of imitation, and on the other with a warning which we shall do well to heed. Her industrial organisation, based on technical knowledge, is perhaps the finest that the world has known. She honours the scientist and gives him every opportunity of assisting in the genesis and promotion of industry. Finding that the single firm is too feeble to produce world-wide effects, she eliminates the insanity of local competitive methods by means of her *Cartel* system, which presents a solid front to the outside world while permitting diversity of method and even of profit within. The power of these combinations has enabled foreign markets to be most systematically and thoroughly

studied, so that whatever may be our private opinion as to the quality of German made goods, there is no doubt that they are made, packed, delivered, and charged for, to the specification of the purchaser. Thus far German methods are worthy of our study, but on the financial side great caution is necessary lest we imitate the reckless methods which have produced almost an *impasse* for the German Empire.

These huge *Cartels*, with the large amount of government and bank assistance afforded them, have been instrumental in what is known as "dumping." This much misunderstood process is one by which the surplus from a home market is disposed of at a cut price in a foreign market with the deliberate intention of ruining the native industries. It is customary with a certain school of pseudo-economists to deny the possibility of such a process as this, but facts are against their contention. The dumping process has been observed in complete operation in the paper trade, particularly exports to the East, in electrical machinery, accessories, electric light bulbs, toys, glassware, gas mantles, and even in such articles as engines and fittings for light railways. It is not necessary here to go into exhaustive details, but however injurious in the long run to the exporting country dumping may be, it is, if persisted in sufficiently long, fatal to the industries it threatens in the importing country. The modern craze for low-priced articles, irrespective of country of origin, has been of most pernicious influence in this country.

Even with industries in which dumping is not possible to the fullest extent, Germany's magnificent commercial and industrial organisation, and the kindly interest in all schemes for the furtherance of commerce evinced by those in authority, from the "All Highest" downwards, have enabled Germany to build up industries of a magnitude hitherto unknown even in the land of great things—the United States.

A few instances will suffice to show the methods adopted and the degree of their success. The standard illustration of German commercial organisation is the chemical industry. This has grown to its present huge proportions because one leading idea has been steadily kept in view. That is to oust every competing form of chemical product in every country in the world. Twenty-five years ago the Indian weaver had his own dyes, which were mainly vegetable, and were certainly excellent both in tint and durability. Indigo was the world's standard blue. The problem of introducing chemical dyes to India involved first of all the discovery of synthetic products as far as possible equal to indigo and its fellow vegetable dyes; secondly, the conversion of the native Indian dyer from the tradition of ages. The steps

taken to effect these ends were guided by the keenest intellects, and almost everywhere indigo has been ousted by the synthetic product, whilst in any bazaar in the East small packets of German aniline dyes could, previous to the outbreak of war, be readily purchased. During 1913-14 the value of coal-tar dyes imported by India amounted to over £700,000, and actually included 300 tons of artificial indigo worth over £62,000. The effect on indigo of the astute marketing of the synthetic product may be seen from the fact that in 1895 the Indian production of natural indigo was 11,900 tons, whilst in 1913-14 it had dropped to 1,350 tons. The fate of indigo has been practically the fate of the British chemical manufactures of whatever class and wherever situated.

The shipping industry presents us with many instances of Germany's methods of acquiring predominance. For example up to the end of 1900 the connection between Singapore and Bangkok, the capital of Siam, was maintained by a line of British steamers. These were coming on the market and the Norddeutscher Lloyd wished to buy them. A large British shipping company having vast interests in the East was also desirous of acquiring this line. There was a keen contest between the rival interests, in which the British were defeated, and the line became German. This result was entirely due to the resolute financial and official support which the German line received. It was impossible for the British company to obtain any assistance from the Government, either local or Imperial. This instance is quite typical, and in no part of our dominions has this monopolising influence been more acutely felt than in British East Africa. From Aden to Durban British ships have practically ceased to ply. So much is this the case that a competent authority publicly asserts that the economic progress of British East Africa and Uganda owes more to the big German shipping subsidies than to any other factor, except perhaps the local railway, in which the British Government has invested some ten millions of money.

As to Great Britain itself, the astute German has taken advantage of the opening afforded him by the loose way in which the Merchant Shipping Act of 1894 is worded. This Act lays down that if a limited liability company is registered in this country its ships are *ipso facto* British ships. As the Solicitor-General put it in the House of Commons, a British ship cannot be held in the name of an alien, but two aliens, and indeed two enemy aliens, may, by the simple process of registering themselves as a limited company and so becoming a British entity, become the owners of British ships. It follows that if before the war German subjects registered themselves as a limited

company in the United Kingdom that company might well be the owners of British ships, and nothing could be done to deprive it of its ownership. The imagination pictures the possibility of a whole fleet of ships under the British flag carrying supplies and troops to the enemy, untouchable by the British navy. In sober prose these companies could continue to carry on their business in time of war, and their profits would accumulate in the hands of the Official Trustee to the credit of enemy shareholders, so that thus a fund would be provided which at the end of the war would be of great assistance to our enemies in the economic struggle with which we shall be faced. It is gratifying to learn that this unsatisfactory state of things is to have close legislative attention.

Another instance of the subtle perseverance with which Germany has insinuated herself into the trade of other countries is to be found in the history of the metal industry during the last twenty years. Take for instance the production of nickel. Canada produced in 1914 £2,750,000 worth of nickel. Only a very small fraction of this remained to be worked up in Canada, the rest going to Germany and the United States. Even in the latter country German interests are powerful in the smelting and allied works which have to do with nickel. Yet nickel is indispensable to us for the production of certain munitions.

An even more flagrant instance of our neglect to safeguard our metal industries is to be found in the case of zinc. A rough estimate of the world's production of zinc would place it somewhere in the region of 1,000,000 tons. Of this Germany produced perhaps 270,000 tons, whilst the Belgian production was entirely controlled by German capital, German directors, and German metallurgical experts. The United States, producing something under 200,000 tons, has allowed German interests to have a strong control over the output. There were German directors on the boards of important English companies, and it is a significant fact that the English product was of late years steadily declining, having in a comparatively short space of time gone down to two-thirds of what it had formerly been. The culminating point of the German control is to be found in Australia where, with the utmost cunning, a net of contracts had been woven round the output. Some of these contracts stood in the names of companies nominally British and registered in London, but actually German as far as their directorate and capital were concerned. Prominent among these were the Frankfort Syndicate, of which Messrs. Merton, the British Government metal brokers, were the leading spirits. As Mr. Hughes, the Prime Minister of Australia, has recently pointed out, for twelve months after war broke out not an ounce of Australian lead or zinc—the life-blood of munitions—could be bought in the

heart of the Empire except through a German agency. Australia produced one-fifth of the world's zinc and lead, but the price of those metals was fixed by a convention in London controlled by German influence; and while we bought spelter here or in America at £100 a ton it was bought in Germany at £30 a ton. On the outbreak of war it was plainly necessary for this country to get hold of as large stocks of spelter as possible. Unfortunately for us, accompanying the decay of our own works was the corresponding diminution of the number of skilled British workmen, and competent men were not available. It is said that we sought to supply the deficiency of skilled workers from among the Belgian refugees, but that there again Germany had been before us, and only six competent men were to be found. The others, if alive, are probably still working, under conditions which would hardly be sanctioned by British trades unions, for their German tyrants.

Again, there are certain metals which are generally placed in the category of rare metals. These have been isolated as a result of chemical and physical research, a great part of which was carried on in British university and other laboratories. Among these metals are such as thorium, vanadium, tungsten, and we have no reason to be ashamed of our spectroscopic work with regard to any of these. Yet, with our usual lack of prevision, we stopped short of any industrial application of the knowledge we had acquired. These rare metals began to be extremely useful. For example, we know that tungsten filaments are now used for electric light bulbs. Incandescent gas mantles owe much to thorium. Tungsten again is of the highest value as an alloy to harden the cutting edges of high speed tools. One source of supply of the metal is our own tin mines in Cornwall, yet the tungsten from Cornwall went to Germany to be refined, and was then sent back, at any price, and with any limitation of quantity the German metal *Cartel* liked to impose, to our steel workers in Sheffield. We had no organisation which could cope with this state of things.

How helplessly in making contracts we had drifted into German hands was shown by the fact that on the outbreak of war certain railway companies which were electrifying their lines were unable to proceed because the system and materials were German. Nothing has been more remarkable during the last thirty years than the rise of the electric industry in Germany. This rise is inseparably connected with the name of Emil Rathenau, one of the most interesting figures of modern industrial history. The architect of his own fortunes, Rathenau has probably done more than any other man to bring Germany industrially into the front rank. Telephones, incandescent lights,

electric light machinery, electric power stations, railways, turbines, *et hoc genus omne*, were introduced by him into Germany. He founded the *Allgemeine Electricitäts Gesellschaft*, which beginning with a capital of £250,000, finished by controlling world-wide interests valued at £200,000,000, and having branches, allied companies, or agents in practically every civilised country of the globe.

Rathenau was the very genius of foresight and organisation. He created markets, aroused desires, provided capital, encouraged invention, founded huge works, and, it must be said, produced reliable articles. Had not the war broken out it would have been very difficult to place a limit to the expansion of the *Allgemeine Electricitäts Gesellschaft*. In all probability three-fifths of the electric industry of every other country save the United States would, during the next twenty-five years, have been in German hands. On the outbreak of war the Kaiser, with his customary recognition of a good man and disregard for mere convention, chose Emil Rathenau to organise for war purposes the industrial forces of the German Empire. Have we a Rathenau, and is he being utilised in a similar way?

The destruction of our West Indian sugar trade and our home sugar refining by the bounty fed beet sugar is a matter of common knowledge. Despite the seeming abolition of bounties under the Brussels Sugar Convention we were still spending, till the war put an end to the supplies, about fifteen millions sterling annually on the purchase of sugar from Germany and Austria. For instance, in 1913 we received 1,296,000 tons of beet sugar from Germany and Austria, whilst only 72,000 tons of all kinds of sugar came from British possessions. Yet the tropical countries under the British flag could easily supply the whole of the requirements of the entire British Empire. We could, if we want beet sugar, supply a very great deal for ourselves. In the face of the official indifference and opposition with which proposals to grow beet in this country have been met, it is worthy of note that Norfolk supplies us with some 5,800 tons of beet sugar. The contrast between our official neglect and the sedulous way in which Germany has nursed her sugar industry is most marked. The war has shown us how criminal in this instance has been our folly.

Reflection on the influence obtained by Germany impels us to the conclusion that if the same rate of progress had been maintained, another twenty-five years would have seen the world's industries practically in her hands. The war has stopped the process of peaceful permeation, and has probably put back for many years Germany's commercial advance. Germany then was distinctly premature in starting the war. For this premature

outbreak there would seem to be three main reasons. In the first place the Austrian Emperor is very old and feeble, and it was realised that his death would probably mean the break up of the Austrian Empire, with a subsequent accession of strength to the various Slav communities in the Balkans and elsewhere. It was necessary therefore to involve the Balkan States in disastrous war before this *débâcle* took place. Next, the Kaiser wished to go down to posterity as a greater conqueror than his grandfather, and resolved to precipitate the conflict whilst he could be sure of riding its whirlwind and directing its storm. Lastly, the leaders of commerce began to realise that their inflated schemes of finance were faulty, and that their enormous production in advance of demand was going to bring about a serious crisis.* The assurance was given them that the war would be a short one, to be followed by enormous indemnities wrung from conquered countries, and that these indemnities would place German finances on even a stronger footing than did the indemnity of '71. The influential industrial magnates were thus won over to the war policy, and the outbreak, premature from the point of view of Germany's commerce, was decided upon. There was the further fear that a change of government in England might mean a firmer policy, and the removal of those members of the administration whom Germany regarded as peculiarly her own bosom friends. In any case such a change would have meant the substitution of a keener interest in Continental affairs for feebleness and indifference.

We must now realise that the war has only adjourned, not ended, Germany's attacks on the world's commerce. Whatever the terms of peace the cessation of the struggle will leave Germany temporarily exhausted, but still determined to assert herself. We must therefore be forearmed, and the first thing to do is completely to remove every trace of German influence from our commerce, our finance, our land and our government. Australia has given us a lead. She has annulled every contract, cancelled every trade-mark and design belonging to Germany, and has given notice to every company that they must, within three months, put out every German shareholder, whether naturalised or not. This is merely preliminary, and when accomplished will still leave us much of education and training, organisation and equipment ere we are properly mobilised for the trade war.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

* See 'The Ruling Caste and Frenzied Trade in Germany.' Constable.

A MEMORY OF JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN

It has been announced that Canada has promised the Mother Country five hundred thousand men, Australia, whose navy has conquered all the German islands in the Pacific, three hundred thousand. New Zealand intends placing at our disposal a force which, when her human resources are taken into consideration, shows her to be beating even these records in loyalty. South Africa, after having acquired another colony for the Empire, has raised contingents for Europe and German East Africa, and little Newfoundland is doing her utmost. As Burke said, when considering the remarkable and gratifying growth in American trade, although clouds and darkness rest upon the future it is good for us to be here, on this noble eminence of pride and gratification, to which the above reflections give rise.

Preoccupied as we have been and are with the war we have accepted these offerings of loyalty and been grateful for them, but have never once troubled to inquire to whom or to what we are chiefly indebted for them. The majority of us have shown this neglect. There have been exceptions. Mr. Balfour in his speech at the unveiling of the Chamberlain bust in the London Guildhall remarked that, "When they saw this novelty, this experiment," in the government of an Empire meeting with such a measure of success, "it was due not merely to the spirit of the people at home and overseas, but to one man more than to any other individual, to the great statesman whose memory they were celebrating."

While Colonial Secretary in Lord Salisbury's administration Mr. Chamberlain carried many measures designed to strengthen and develop different parts of the Empire and to promote the closer union of the whole. But as a Birmingham paper remarked at the time of his death, "Beside this great development of Imperial sentiment the actual achievements of Mr. Chamberlain at the Colonial Office dwindle in significance." The broader conception of patriotism that we call Imperialism may be said to have originated with him. One Canadian city when it was visited by the Duke of Connaught welcomed him with the

notice, "The Empire is our country and Canada is our home." To Joseph Chamberlain the Empire was his country. Dr. Powell in a lecture on Imperialism at the Bristol Colonial Institute remarked that he did not speak as a partisan, but as scientist and historian when he said "our response to the lofty ideals of Imperial oneness was due in a very large degree to the work of the late Mr. Chamberlain." One of his critics had told us that "for Mr. Chamberlain the Empire could be comprehended in one mental sweep, a single corporation dealing with local questions as parts of a vaster whole and capable of yet more compact and efficient organisation." Not only did he become imbued with this broader patriotism himself, but infused it into large numbers of his countrymen both at home and across the seas. "It was during Mr. Chamberlain's term of office as Colonial Secretary," said Mr. Balfour, "that the British Empire as a whole had first shown its full consciousness—its full and corporate consciousness—of what it was and what its destinies were." So he may be considered as "the founder or creator of a new order of things." Frederic Harrison in his life of Chatham tell us that in eight centuries our country has known but four great creative statesmen. "William the Conqueror made all England an organic nation. Edward I. conceived the union of all Britain. Cromwell made the United Kingdom and founded our sea power. Chatham made the colonial system and was the founder of the Empire." The achievements of these statesmen are illustrative of the different stages in the nation's evolution. The next logical stage would be the realisation of a united British Empire. This was the conception of Chamberlain and entitles him to be considered the fifth creative statesman.

After a long and careful search for a means to his end he came to the conclusion that he had found it in Imperial Preference. That was a protective system's chief recommendation to him that he saw in Imperial Preference a stepping-stone to Federation. But the short term of human life was all too short for the great task that he had set himself. The difficulties in his way were very great and his health broke down in the struggle to overcome them. Like David he was only permitted to collect the materials for the temple and had to leave its building to other hands.

He may obtain a fuller recognition from posterity than he has obtained from his contemporaries. It may be that we are not sufficiently far removed from him to see his greatness in proper perspective for, as he himself once said in a famous oratorical utterance, great men are like great mountains, and we do not appreciate their magnitude while we are still close to them. And it is too early to gauge with any certainty what will be the

estimate that those who come after him will form of Joseph Chamberlain. Even posterity is not always just in its judgments, but is prone to judge men by the test of success alone, and to overlook the fact that he who failed may have achieved more than he who succeeded, but have failed because he had greater obstacles to encounter. And the outcome of what promises to be the most important part of Joseph Chamberlain's work still lies hidden in the womb of futurity.

Future generations will probably see something strikingly dramatic in the circumstances of his death on the very eve of the great war. The peace of the world was still unbroken, and to those initiated in State secrets there were no evidences of what was shortly to come to pass. The ominous stillness that precedes a terrific thunderstorm now appears to us, when we look back upon the peace of that tragically eventful July of 1914. It seems as if a kind and beneficent providence, mindful of his disinterested and useful life, considerably removed Joseph Chamberlain from this vale of tears that he might be spared witnessing the sorrows and sufferings that were about to befall the land he loved and the people for whom he had done so much. But his passing at that particular time may be viewed in another light, compared with that of Moses on the borders of the Promised Land. So he perished on what may prove to have been the eve of the fulfilment of his long cherished dreams. His end coincided with that of an epoch. But there is a sense in which he belongs more to the new era on which we have entered than to that in which his life was spent. With its spirit he would find himself in sympathy, its needs he foresaw and pointed out to his countrymen, one of its decisive events may be the triumph of the cause he championed.

His voice is silent in our council hall for ever
And whatever tempests lower, for ever silent,
Even if they broke, in thunder silent.

They have broken, thunder and lightning, storm and tempest, hailstorms and stones of fire. And in this our time of trial and perplexity there comes over us at times a longing to hear his voice again.

"When we thought of those who had gone before," said Mr. Balfour, "we often said to ourselves, Had he been spared, how would he have acted had it been thrown upon him to deal with the difficulties which now confront us." It is often cynically remarked that no one in this world is indispensable. We say of one that the world cannot go on without him. He dies and the gap in our ranks is soon filled up from the crowd pressing hard on the heels of him who has gone under. Yes, the

world still goes on, but does it go on so well? At the present time Joseph Chamberlain in the plenitude of his vigour would have been a tower of strength to us. We should have found invaluable his tireless energy, fertility of resource, stubborn determination, driving power and ability of getting things done, and, last but not least, his power of inspiring his fellow-countrymen with his own fervent patriotism and enthusiastic Imperialism, in which he excels every other British statesman with the single exception of Chatham. As it is there are great movements and great tendencies rather in the position of a distracted multitude without a leader; waiting for someone who will interpret their needs, show them how they are to satisfy them and put himself at their head. We have lost our Moses but have not yet found our Joshua.

We need a leader who will direct us how to use the circumstances of the time which are exceptionally favourable to Imperial Union, for which a few months of war has done more than years of peace. With the death of Joseph Chamberlain the causes for which he lived and died seem to have passed into the keeping of a power not of this world, and means to be employed to further them greater than those at his or any man's disposal. A whirlpool of great and terrible events sucked them in, bearing them with it in its mad course, and at the same time sweeping off their feet and carrying on with them the whole body of those who had been the bitter enemies of those causes. All the people of the Empire, with a few contemptible exceptions, are growing to feel as he felt for the Empire.

Imperial Federation, once the dream of a few, themselves doubtful of its practicability, has come to be regarded as a fitting object of practical endeavour by the many. Imperial Preference has ceased to be the badge of one political party, but has now been adopted by the majority of the nation. A people's feet have begun to tread in the paths that he prepared, and his spirit when it took its departure from him seems to have become embodied in an empire.

D. A. E. VEAL.

AFTER THE WAR

AFTER the war! How often do we hear that phrase on the lips of men and women! To the average mind what is the picture that presents itself when those words are said? Is it a vision of repose and peace, of a cessation of strife and pain, such as the convalescent experiences after a terrible illness which has exhausted endurance and sapped vitality of body and spirit? Or do those words "after the war" stir up thoughts of action, of revival, or cheerfulness, a desire to regain what has been lost, to make up leeway, and banish, as far as may be, the nightmare which has held humanity in its grip.

To the young these last are, without doubt, the thoughts that come most naturally. But to those past the first flush of youth, not seldom the vision of a world at peace makes the strongest appeal.

And there are some to whom "after the war" holds no meaning. It seems a state of things far off, intangible. The war must end some day, of course, but for the present it is as if it had always been and would always be. To numbers of men and women it has brought with it such a weight of sorrow that a sense of terrible finality never leaves them.

To these there is no "after the war"; the war is the end of all things. They seem ever to be groping in the darkness, and yet dreading the light that will reveal to them the ruins of the world as they knew it. After the war the curtain of darkness will be lifted, the occupations and missions of mercy in which they have feverishly sought relief from their thoughts will come to an end. They will have leisure to turn their attention to the wreckage that is left of their lives, to put together, if it be possible, the broken pieces; but to fill the vacant places—that is beyond their power.

It is often said that nothing will ever be the same again, and this is, perhaps, in a great measure true, for the present generation at any rate. Already, on every hand, we find greater simplicity in living. Ostentation is practically non-existent. Less is expected of every one. The feeling of false shame or snobbishness, or whatever it be called, which at one time

animated those who could not keep pace with their more wealthy neighbours, is dying out.

Good fellowship and friendship have come to mean something that they did not mean before the war. And, busy though men and women are, they yet find leisure to bestow on their friends, and show a greater readiness to extend the hand of friendship and thus to form new ties. In this great cataclysm, when the happenings of no day can be foreseen, the claims of love and friendship have taken on a deeper significance. People of one race are insensibly drawn closer to one another. They are, figuratively speaking, like children in the dark; the very nearness of their fellows brings with it a consciousness of security and comfort.

Dimly they are aware that if the material things, such as money and the luxuries and pleasures money brings, slip away from them, it is in the society of their friends that they must seek consolation; and those who, at a time like this, pass love and friendship by may in the future find something lacking that will be hard to replace.

In all the changes brought about and yet to be wrought by the war, let it be remembered that human nature will remain the same. For a generation, perhaps, it has been shaken out of its artificiality. Latter-day men and women have been stirred from their calm and have displayed emotions that, in days gone by, it has been their wont to hide. But those who expect that life, at least on the surface, will not bear very much the same aspect after the war will be disappointed. The froth will always rise to the top. There will still be those who dance and dine and amuse themselves. The younger generation will be growing up, demanding their fill of life's gifts and pleasures, and not to be denied.

Human nature will not change. The ambitious man will be ambitious still. The money-maker will still seek to make money, and to imagine that party politics will be dead is surely to indulge in a fanciful dream. The points at issue may not be the same, the combatants may have shifted their ground, but for all that party warfare is likely to go on, and by whatever name the parties elect to be known, the cleavage between them will be as wide and deep as in the days before the war.

The world forgets very quickly. After the war it will forget deliberately and of set purpose. Those who come through this titanic struggle will strive to put the anguish and the dread of past months and years behind them. They will turn their eyes to the light. The wounds and scars will remain—wounds that may never heal, scars that may never be effaced; but they will be bravely hidden, and many a heartache borne in silence.

Let us pray that the kindness and good fellowship which is abroad to-day will live on, so that a common brotherhood may spring up, and helping hands and words of comfort and cheer be extended to those who have suffered and are like to go down under the weight and burden of the heritage bequeathed to them by the war.

FLORENCE KINLOCH-COOKE.

CANADA'S LANDS

DURING the year 1915 no fewer than 17,532 homesteads were taken up in Western Canada, representing the enormous area of 2,805,120 acres. This shows a falling off as compared with the 25,623 entries of the previous year, but is nevertheless very remarkable when it is remembered that so many thousands of those who under peace conditions would have been taking out homestead patents are now either with the armies in France and elsewhere or are in training to go there. Of the new homesteaders Manitoba secured 4,113; Saskatchewan, 6,349; Alberta, 6584, and British Columbia 486. Obviously in the absence of immigration in consequence of the war, residents in the Canadian towns and cities are in many cases going back to the land.

THE publication by the Dominion Government of the 1915 yield of root and fodder crops makes it possible to take stock of the harvest as a whole. This must go on record as the most bountiful ever reaped in Canada. In giving the grain yields of 1915 it is necessary, of course, to depend upon the revised estimates of September 30th when the threshing results were only partially available. The final official estimates of the year have not yet been published; but from the general trend of the reports it is possible, even probable, that the finally ascertained yields may even exceed the high totals already published. Wheat is more than double the 1914 crop or 208 per cent. as compared with last year. The total wheat yield is estimated at 336,258,000 bushels as compared with 161,280,000 in 1914. The financial value of the total field crops for the year in Canada is estimated at \$749,135,400, as compared with \$638,580,000, an increase of \$110,555,100. "These figures," says *The Canadian Miller and Cerealists*, "afford some measure of the extent of the returning prosperity due to this year's abundant harvest. In the West it is anticipated that part of the profits from the large grain harvest may be utilised as capital for the promotion of mixed farming, thereby tending to increase the supply of meat, to render the Western farmer less dependent upon wheat-growing as a single branch of agriculture, and to maintain the fertility of the soil by the processes and the crops incidental to the keeping of more live stock."

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

FOLLOWING the conference of the Provincial Premiers and Ministers with the Dominion Government authorities, a Canada-wide movement has been initiated during the past month to extend a welcome to returning disabled soldiers and to do for them whatever is possible to enable them to get a living in the best manner which their physical condition will allow. Each Provincial Government is expected to appoint a commission to care for the men from its own province after they are discharged from the military hospitals. It is impossible for the military hospitals to do all that is necessary for the men, and the work of these commissions begins where the military hospitals are forced to stop.

A PERSONAL appeal to 15,000 Londoners in London, Ontario, is being made by the officers of the 142nd (City of London) Battalion; it is expected that corps will be raised to full strength almost at once, and that little or no difficulty will be experienced in filling up the ranks of other battalions to be raised there. Lists have been prepared containing the names of 15,000 London men of military age, and officers and men will call on all of them and urge them to enlist, and note their reasons if they refuse.

PROVISION has been made by the British Admiralty to look after the interests and complete the training of the men who have commenced their course with the Curtiss Aviation School, Toronto, for the Royal Naval Service. Such was the definite announcement made recently to a gathering of the students by Rear-Admiral Kingsmill, of the Canadian Marine Service. The men will be taken to England to complete their training in drafts of twelve. Some have already arrived.

A NOTABLE gift to the Canadian Patriotic Fund is that of the farmers of Saskatchewan. It consists of 120,000 bushels of wheat grown from 4,000 acres of land devoted to the support of those who have gone from Canada to fight in the Empire's cause. The Dalhousie University Hospital Unit, commanded by Colonel Stewart, has been presented with a motor field ambulance by the Red Cross Society of Windsor, Nova Scotia.

THE Canadian Boy Scout movement has greatly increased in membership and efficiency. At the end of June, 1915, there were upwards of 16,000 boy scouts in Canada, an increase of nearly 3,000 over the figures for the preceding year. During the past year there has not been a spot

in the whole inhabited Dominion in which the scouts have not had some opportunity of service in connection with the war. When the invalided soldiers began to arrive at Quebec last summer, the boy scouts of that city, 140 strong, volunteered, on their own initiative, for any service they could perform. As an instance, a squad of twenty waited for a draft to land just after daylight. The boys went aboard and helped the crippled men in every way they could. Some went every morning to the Immigration Building to see what was wanted—shopping for men who could not go out, guiding others about, etc. Others helped at the Khaki Club and the Overseas Club, the latter being for invalids only. His Royal Highness, the Duke of Connaught, Chief Scout, in his yearly message to the boys, said: "Thank you each and all for all that you have done and are doing. The inspiration of your youthful example means far more to many of us seniors than you yourselves know."

RECORDS are being broken every day in Toronto and other Ontario cities and towns in the numbers of men being enlisted for foreign service. Some of the methods are novel. For instance, there was a recruiting Sunday in Toronto two weeks ago, and the appeal for recruits was made in the churches of all denominations, the ministers giving permission to the officers to speak just before the close of the service. Of the twenty-six churches visited, twelve heard the appeal for men at the morning service, and twenty-four in the evening, while twelve Bible classes were visited in the afternoon. In several other churches the officers merely made the appeal for men and announced the presence of recruiting officers or sergeants, who would see the recruits at the conclusion of the service. Some of the ministers made direct reference to the campaign and calls to the men in their sermons. One clergyman allowed the recruiting officers to call on men who were willing to enlist to stand up, but for the most part it was felt by the ministers that without previous warning to their congregations it would not be advisable to resort to such a method of getting recruits. Motor cars were waiting outside all the churches in which campaigns were conducted, and carried men to the battalion head-quarters direct.

A PLAN to enlist Indians from the different reserves throughout Ontario for the 114th Overseas Battalion has been formed by Lieut. John R. Tracey, of the 109th Regiment, who is himself one of the Iroquois tribe, living formerly on the Caugnawauga Reserve on the St. Lawrence river. Lieut. Tracey believes that there are at least 500 Indians who could be secured in the province, and he proposes to visit these and to endeavour to enlist them. He hopes to raise a full platoon from among his own tribesmen, and another platoon each from the six nations in Western Ontario and the Ojibways in the neighbourhood of the Soo. From his knowledge of the Indian dialects, Lieut. Tracey hopes to be able to reach the Indians where no white man could appeal to them, and he feels that when the facts of the war are explained to them they will readily enlist. The Indians of the various reserves in Canada are again contributing to the patriotic fund this year, as they did last.

ARRANGEMENTS are being made for the establishment of new military schools throughout the Dominion. One or more schools for the training of officers will be established in each military division or district. In addition, a school will be attached to every overseas battalion for the training of non-commissioned officers, and every volunteer will be given the opportunity to train for certificates in such ranks. Competitions are being encouraged among the men of the various regiments in squad-drill, gymnastics, etc., and a method of recognition of efficiency in these respects will be inaugurated. The Minister of Militia states that there are many men eligible for commissions who appear to find it difficult to reach the proper authorities. Such men, he says, should apply to the commanding officer of the regiment located in their district, and also to the district officer commanding or to the Minister.

RETURNS made to the Ontario Bureau of Mines for the nine months ended September 30th, 1915, show an increase in value of gold of £376,818 and a decrease in value of silver of £410,352. It is pointed out that the increase in production of gold amounts to one-third. The gold districts of Northern Ontario, the report says, are fulfilling the prediction made several years ago that they would make good the loss caused by the possible waning of the silver mines. Thus, the combined value of the gold and silver output of the first nine months of 1915 was only £33,532 less than for the same portion of 1914, notwithstanding the fact that the yield of silver fell off over 20 per cent. Part of this decrease is due to the low prices which prevailed during the whole nine months, but which made a sharp recovery in November.

THAT the trails in the southern part of Alberta are black with teams which are hauling grain to market, that the majority of the elevators are full, and that the railways have been experiencing difficulty in moving the grain, owing to the immense yields, is the report of the Provincial Superintendent of Demonstration Farms, after a recent trip through Southern Alberta. The yields, he says, are so large as to be almost incredible, cases of 50 and 60 bushels per acre being common. The fact that there has been a partial blockade on the railways is not the fault of the railway companies, for although a large crop had been expected, nobody could have foreseen such avalanches of grain as have poured out of the threshing machines. In the northern part of Alberta the grain ripened earlier, and there has consequently been a more steady movement, although the railways there have also been experiencing difficulty in bringing it forward as fast as they would like. As a consequence of the big crop, there was a diminution in autumn ploughing, all the energies of the farmers being concentrated on harvesting. There has also been very little summer fallowing, every available acre apparently having been sown to grain.

THREE thousand tons of onions were despatched from the market gardens of Kelowna, British Columbia, this season, to supply the kitchens of Eastern and Western Canada, the United States and other parts of the world. From the beginning of July to the end of the first week in

November no fewer than 720 carloads of produce were despatched from this centre—an increase of 15 per cent. over the figures for the corresponding period of last year. The vegetable crop was exceptionally large and readily sold at good prices.

THE hunting of big game in the Canadian Rocky Mountains is naturally not being indulged in this year to the same extent as in former years, so many men who used to delight in the pastime having gone to the front. It is reported from Edmonton, however, that some fine goat and sheep heads have recently been brought to the city, also a fine bunch of game birds, the skins of which are being preserved. A number of parties are at present out after moose, caribou and grizzlies.

THE Sudbury Industrial Prison Farm at Burwash, near Sudbury, Ontario, comprises about 30,000 acres. The farm was established in September, 1914, and in the year that has elapsed considerable work has been done. A camp for 150 men has been constructed with buildings for the guards, administration buildings, superintendent's quarters, stores, blacksmith's shop, etc., all of frame construction. A sawmill has now been established. Clearing to the amount of 300 or 400 acres was done during last winter and 110 acres were stumped, ploughed and put under crop last spring with good results. Potatoes, peas, barley, oats, hay and vegetables were grown. The maximum number of prisoners at the farm during the first year was 225, the average running about 170. These men came from the north country and would otherwise have had to be cared for in the small jails at Sudbury, North Bay, Cobalt, Cochrane, Sault Ste. Marie, Parry Sound and other places.

THE problem of developing and maintaining the efficiency of Canada after the war was dealt with recently at Edmonton in a lecture delivered before the Canadian Club by Dr. Hughes, of Toronto. How to make Canada efficient and a leader in the commercial and educational development of the world were the central points in the argument of the lecturer, a noted authority on education. "The new idea of education," he said, "is to develop individuality in the child and make a transforming constructive man or woman—the one that is by far the best citizen and nearest the ideals of Christianity." He deprecated cutting off the technical and vocational part of the local school life for reasons of supposed economy. He looked for a time in the near future of Canada when the two giant arms of industry—manufacturing and agriculture—would be developed to a high degree under the direction of the Government; when national saving and the elimination of waste would make the nation great in the way of wealth and the moral discipline of economy; when the Dominion would create in the factories all the innumerable articles and products which have been imported in the past; and when the youth of the country would be so trained along the lines of useful accomplishment that Canada as a nation would be noted for efficiency in private and commercial life.

SOUTH AFRICA

OWING to the difficult nature of the country in which our troops are operating in East Africa, it was found that the ordinary ambulance stretcher was of little use, and in response to a suggestion made by an Imperial officer serving in Nyasaland, a stretcher has been produced in Johannesburg of a type which promises the greatest advantages. It consists of a stretcher of remarkable strength and lightness, mounted on one motor-cycle wheel, and it is claimed to give the maximum amount of comfort when being used in rough country, or when travelling at a high rate of speed on a good road. Thirty of these stretchers have already been sent forward, and others are now in course of construction. The introduction of the matter to the Imperial Authorities was the work of the Munitions Committee, which has lately been formed for the purpose of assisting the Government whenever possible.

THE recruiting campaign for the East African Contingent proved most successful, more men being obtained than were required. The Rand record is a most excellent one, the number of men raised in that area alone being 7,035. Although the various committees appointed have ceased their labours, recruiting is still continuing throughout the country.

THE cost of the war to the Union of South Africa so far has been £18,575,996. This includes the cost of dealing with the rebellion, the operations in South West Africa, and the garrisoning of that territory up to the end of October.

NEARLY one thousand coats have been sent to the War Office by the people of South Africa. The movement is being pushed vigorously, and it is hoped to considerably increase the number of skins turned out weekly from the tanneries in the near future. A total of 10,000 coats is the number which it is hoped to send.

FOR the purpose of income tax, 705 persons made returns in respect of farming operations in 1914. Of these 293 returns were for incomes exceeding £1,000. The total income of individuals from farming amounted to £511,694.

THE committee in charge of the manufacture of munitions on the Rand are pushing the industry energetically, and are making a special feature of the manufacture of hand grenades, the latest tests with which proved highly satisfactory. They are also making catapults for use with the bombs. In addition, specially designed compasses for use in bush country are being made, and at a request from the Government the manufacture of buttons is being undertaken. It is the boast of the committee that they are prepared to make anything that is required, provided they are given a week or two to perfect their plans.

IN order to release men for active service many institutions in the Union are engaging women clerks. Twenty began work a few weeks ago in the Standard Bank, Johannesburg, while the National Bank in that

town is already employing about thirty. It is stated that some five hundred applications were received by these two institutions. The Government is also gradually introducing women clerks where possible.

It was announced at a recent meeting of the South African National Union that that body was organising an "All South African Week" at the time of the next Johannesburg Agricultural Show. The president mentioned that Great Britain had asked South Africa to be less dependent on the British factories at the present time, and instanced one industry which seemed to offer an opportunity for profitable investment—that of bottle-making. Another member thought the sphere of woman's work could be greatly enlarged, and mentioned toy-making as a particularly suitable industry for women and girls.

IMPORTANT experimental works are proceeding in connection with extensive deposits of antimony in the Murchison Range. It is claimed that South African antimony is the finest in the world, and far superior to the Chinese product, which supplies about 60 per cent. of the world's consumption. An exhibition of entries for the National Service Fund Toy-making Competition was held at Johannesburg a few days before Christmas, and exceeded all expectations. All the toys were locally made from South African materials, and comprised a variety of articles such as could not have been found in the most extensive emporium in the country. Many of the "manufacturers" were children themselves. The toys were subsequently disposed of by auction.

OWING to the shortage of shipping accommodation and the rise in freights, much attention is now being given to the production in South Africa of articles which are at present being imported. Some trouble is being experienced in starting new industries owing to the difficulty of finding the necessary capital, but those industries which are already established are doing well. Particularly is this the case with tanning, which profited much by the demand for leather during the South-West Africa campaign, and since then the demand for leather has kept up owing to the large sales of Cape skins and hides to America. A new tannery is now in course of erection at Silverton, near Pretoria, the cost of which will be £20,000. All the raw materials used in this tannery will be of South African growth or manufacture.

It is reported that a sensational strike of coal has been made in the district of Witbank, in the Transvaal Province, where coal is already being produced in large quantities. It is said that coal producing excellent results has been proved over an area of 8,300 acres. The assay return gave an 18-foot thick seam ranging from 13·27 to 14·3 calorific, 4·9 to 7·45 ash, 10·32 to 0·68 sulphur, 22 to 27 volatile. This indicates a first-class coal, and the fact that it contains such a small proportion of sulphur makes it eminently suitable for steamer and railway consumption.

NEW ZEALAND

AN extraordinary coincidence occurred one day recently on the British front in France. A young lieutenant of the Royal Horse Artillery was sitting in the top of a haystack, accompanied by two of his men and engaged in making observations for his battery. Presently another artillery lieutenant, followed by two men, crawled up beside him, and they made their observations together. Chatting, the two were amazed to find not only that they were both New Zealanders, but that each was an Auckland. Then, by comparison, they discovered that, although they had never before met, their respective homes were within a few yards of each other at Mount Eden, one of the suburbs of Auckland.

THE astounding sum of £127,707 10s. 2d. was handed over to the authorities responsible for administering patriotic funds in New Zealand recently as the results of a three months' carnival held in different parts of Otago, one of the large Southern Provinces of the Dominion. The only expenditure on wages was £75 to the organiser. In every other case the work was done gratuitously.

AN interesting ceremony took place recently at Wellington, the capital city of New Zealand, when, acting on behalf of the British Board of Trade, Captain E. J. Hales, of the tug *Terawhiti* was presented with a silver medal and diploma, awarded to him by the Emperor of Japan, for the heroic part he played in the rescue of five Japanese fishermen and a woman in the Japanese Inland Sea. Captain Hales was chief officer of the *Minerie* when the episode occurred. There had been a typhoon, and the Japanese schooner was sighted capsized. Through Captain Hales's promptness the men were hauled safely on board the *Minerie*. The rescued fishermen anxiously endeavoured to explain something in connection with the schooner, but no one could understand them. Eventually the assistance of the Japanese pilot was obtained, and then it was discovered that a woman was imprisoned in the capsized boat. Captain Hales went on to the schooner at considerable risk, and cut a hole in her timbers, thus rescuing the woman, who had been knocked about, but was not seriously injured.

THE City of Auckland is sending, as a proof of their admiration for the conquest of German South West Africa, presents to Generals Botha and Smuts. To General Botha goes an address on vellum, exquisitely illuminated, and enclosed in a silver casket that stands on a base of three New Zealand woods — rewarewa, Wairangi purau, and wavy manuka. Above is a block of greenstone on silver feet, and the casket itself is ornamented with the Dominion coat-of-arms, a carved Maori whare, and the South African and New Zealand flags crossed. Other ornamentations include representations of fern leaves, kiwis, and tikis in silver. On the lid of the casket is a mounted trooper in solid gold. The monogram of the recipient is done on gold, and gold-bordered panels

bear representations of Mount Egmont and Mitre Peak, the two famous New Zealand mountains. A similar casket and address has been prepared for General Smuts.

A VERY interesting work of art was carried out in London recently to the order of the first party of New Zealand soldiers convoyed to Egypt. This is a silver replica of an old Maori war canoe, with the tail and head pieces and full Maori decoration. The canoe stands on two blocks of greenstone, the base being formed of a fine piece of New Zealand black maire wood. It is a present to the Japanese Captain in command of our Ally's warship *Ibuki*, which helped to convoy the first party of New Zealanders to Egypt. By request of His Majesty the King this model was sent to Buckingham Palace for his inspection, and he has expressed great appreciation of and interest in the model canoe. So pleased were they with the courtesy and kindness of the Captain that they decided to give him and his officers and men a memento of the occasion, and a considerable sum of money was collected in small amounts, every man of the Expedition contributing.

An important decision has been given in New Zealand relating to the Shipping and Seamen Act, dealing with what are known as time agreements. The effect of the decision is that shipowners have to make arrangements for crews of ships having time agreements, no matter where the ships are trading, to pay the men every month, instead of giving them an advance only and paying them in full when the return voyage is finished. The Auckland Operative Bakers' and Pastrycooks' Union has decided that what they contend to be unnecessary night work is to be abolished or only carried out when employers consent to pay double time. Four a.m. has now been fixed as the standard time for starting work in bakehouses.

THE Prime Minister of New Zealand and a party of Members of the Dominion Parliament have recently made a tour of various promising districts in the North Island, where proposals are afoot to establish fruit and poultry farms as settlements for discharged soldiers. In the Waari Hamlet, one of the places visited, fruit farming is already successfully carried on, a return of £100 per acre having been made last season. The Government is considering the advisability of establishing an experimental fruit farm in the district.

THE demand that we should meet Germany on her own ground of scientific efficiency is being faced even in remote parts overseas. One such measure is the new invention of Mr. H. M. Chisholme, of Napier, New Zealand, by means of which the old chemical means of ridding raw wool of extraneous vegetable matter has been replaced by a mechanical process less damaging to the material than the carbonising process hitherto nearly universal. Mr. Chisholme has now had his process at work in his mills for a year, and it is of infinite importance since it leads to much less deterioration of woollen stuffs than the old acid process.

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THE VOICE OF EMPIRE

MR. HUGHES AND HIS SPEECHES

[Continued.]

THE SPEECHES

In continuing our special reports of Mr. Hughes's speeches we make no apology. These speeches have done much to assist towards a clearer understanding of the greater issues raised by the war, and the absolute necessity of establishing one policy and one policy alone, both for purposes of defence and purposes of trade within the Empire as soon as peace is restored. Henceforward, we must not only think imperially, we must act imperially. Our watchwords must be unity and progress, but we must advance, not as separate entities, each seeking its own salvation in its own way, but as an organised whole, having but one aim in view, and that aim the development and consolidation of our common inheritance. [Ed.]

V

THE POWER OF ORGANISATION *

In this great crisis I feel proud that organised labour has responded nobly to the call of duty. It has given freely of its best; the ranks of the Imperial armies are thronged with the members of our unions. Labour has done well, and we who fight beneath its banner have a right to be glad and rejoice that in the hour of trial we have proved ourselves worthy to stand with those other brave and valiant men of all classes who think it a privilege to fight and if needs be, die for their country.

This war has drawn us all closer together. We see things in a truer perspective, we understand and respect one another much better. A common cause and the spirit of self-sacrifice has

* Speech delivered at a dinner given by the Labour party at the House of Commons, April 19.

purged us of much of that suspicion and distrust with which different sections of society regarded one another. For thank God, there is in the hearts of men something which makes it impossible for us to think ill of any man or any class prepared to die for a great cause. And so we are now, much more than ever before, a nation. And all classes are not only ready but anxious to do all things necessary for the salvation of our country and our race, whether they be citizens of these Islands or of the wider Dominions overseas. And because of this great change in the temper and outlook of the people, I do most certainly believe that the nation is ready to adopt a policy in its essence truly national that will effect a profound and salutary change in the social and economic conditions of the people.

In these days, when plain speaking is demanded of all men, I should ill repay the trust that has been reposed in me by my fellow citizens in Australia, if I did not speak as I feel before the representatives of organised labour in Britain, both in its political and industrial spheres. During my whole public life, I have been—as some of you know—a worker in the vineyard of labour. I am now, and have been from its inception, the president of one of the largest and most completely organised industrial associations in the Commonwealth. I have been and still am very intimately associated with every branch of maritime labour and with organised labour generally. As for the political side of labour organisation in Australia, I was amongst its pioneers. I have followed its fortunes through good and evil report. I have fought its battles with all my soul and with all my strength. I am not merely in the Australian labour movement, I am of it. I have been down in the abyss. I know what labour wants; I know the wrongs from which it suffers, for I too have endured them. I mention these things only that you, whose parts are played on a wider stage, and who can hardly be expected to know all that passes across ten thousand miles of ocean, might know something of me and the labour movement of Australia, whose mouthpiece I have the honour to be.

The labour movement in Australia has made amazing strides during these twenty years. But yesterday we were but a handful of men crying in the wilderness, despised, ridiculed, condemned. To-day we have been entrusted by the people of Australia with the reins of Government. In the Commonwealth, after war had been raging a month, when it seemed as though Germany, in the first fury of its swoop would plunge its bloody talons into the very vitals of France, seize Calais, and strike at the heart of Britain, the electors deliberately chose us to lead them in this crisis. Whether we have proved ourselves worthy of this great trust is for others to say. One thing is certain that we have

done, and are doing, our best. I think even the Germans will admit so much.

And this brings me to two points I desire to emphasise, for they are the secret of Labour's success in Australia. The driving force behind the Australian labour movement has been spiritual in its nature. The enthusiasm of those who fought beneath its banner in the early days was, in the truest sense of the word, religious. These men saw with kindling eyes and fast-beating hearts the topmost towers of a newer and better world, and devoted their lives to preaching the glad tidings and pointing out the way. This is the spirit that has animated the Australian Labour movement. Lacking it, we should have perished.

But the Labour party of Australia has also been and is a practical party. It has always faced the facts of life and tried to see the world as it is. No other attitude, indeed, would have been compatible with the claim we made to govern the country. We were perforce compelled to deal with the everyday requirements of the people as well as those great problems which confront all civilised countries. The Labour Government of the Commonwealth, faced with this dreadful war which it had done nothing to provoke, threw itself into the contest with the spirit of men who recognised that not only their country but everything that Labour stood for trembled in the balance. Compelled to make war, we did not fight in kid glove fashion but as men who realised that defeat could only be averted by destroying the enemy. In short, the Government of the Commonwealth faced facts. I want to repeat what I have said. The Australian Labour party has always faced facts. It has not had its head in the clouds and its feet in a bog. Our face steadfastly turned towards the promised land, we have never forgotten that the way was long, the obstacles many and great, and that we had to deal with men as they are and the world as it is.

While we have striven to make the world a better place for those who come after us, we never forgot our duty to our own generation. We have endeavoured not to look out on the world through the mists of theory. We have long recognised war as a great fact which no mere talk about the brotherhood of man could sweep aside. We did not delude ourselves that by offering our cheek to our "brother" the enemy, we could avoid the stiletto which our "dear brother" held in his hand behind him. Let me make myself quite clear. We did not desire war; no men desired it less or hated it more. But we recognised that war was, like death and disease, one of the great facts of life, and so to be faced. To be faced, mark you, not to be provoked; indeed, by all means short of surrendering our honour and our free institutions to be avoided, and in the fulness of time

to be stamped out like disease, but in the meantime to be faced.

And the Australian Labour party had not only faced the possibilities, nay, the probability if not the certainty of war, for many years before this war broke out, but prepared for it. We had adopted as planks of our platform a system of universal military training for home defence and an Australian navy. Time will not permit of my going into either of these matters at length. But I am satisfied that only by some such system of military training as we have adopted can the defence of a country be ensured in a manner compatible with the preservation of the institutions of free democratic government. Well, when war broke out we had this organisation of universal service to fall back upon. If we—and here I speak not for one party but for all—had adopted the system earlier we should have been better prepared, but as it is it has served us well. We have enlisted some 280,000 men to date, and as to what manner of men they are let their deeds speak for them, for these have carved an imperishable record which will never die while men live upon this earth.

Nor have we stopped here; we have waged against Germany with all the power at our disposal an economic war. We have, I venture to assert, destroyed utterly that hold over the industries and trade of Australia which existed before the war. We have done this because in our opinion this would not only seriously injure our enemy's position, but greatly benefit our own. Against such a power as Germany, to whom the most sacred obligations are but scraps of paper; to whom international law is but a web of gossamer to be swept contemptuously aside whenever self-interests demand it; to whom wholesale murder and the foulest outrages are parts of a settled and deliberate policy, to neglect one weapon in the armoury of civilised nations is the supremest folly, inviting disaster and earning the contempt of an enemy who understands but one argument, that of force.

But we have not been content, and I hope the Empire generally will not be content, to destroy, we have endeavoured to build up. Having freed ourselves from the octopus grip of our enemy, we sought without delay to lay the foundations of a great national policy worthy of our race and of a truly civilised people. The benefits of this policy must not be confined to any one section, but must extend to all. It must not only secure our national safety but the economic and social welfare of the whole body politic. It will involve a change of the present fiscal policy of Britain. If you ask how far that change will go and by what means it will achieve its purpose, my reply is that it will go as far as is necessary to, to at least three things: to

ensure our national safety ; to conserve and extend our trade and industries ; to lift up the masses of the people to a level which will ensure to every worker—using that term in its very widest meaning—such remuneration and conditions of labour as are necessary to enable man to marry and bring up a family in reasonable comfort and with those surroundings that free men in a civilised country ought to have. It must do all these things and not merely one of them. Its effects will be no doubt almost revolutionary in character, yet it is so obviously not only the proper but the necessary thing to do, that it will, when understood, be welcomed by all save those whom self-interest or false doctrine has made blind.

We are now passing through a crisis the gravity of which it is impossible to exaggerate. We ought not to disguise from ourselves that we are literally fighting for our lives. We are told that Germany is, or soon will be, on the verge of collapse. Our great enemy is far from exhausted, and we ought not to buoy up our spirits with such hopes. The fact that for many years Germany deliberately prepared for this war—which she regarded as the necessary and only means by which she could achieve and satiate her ambition, while posing before a too credulous world as a lover of peace—is now generally accepted. But that Germany is an organised nation is not known, or if known, its vital significance is not generally recognised. Yet this is the secret of her tremendous driving power, of the rapidity with which she has hurled and still hurls her forces now in this direction, now in another ; of that unexpected readiness with which she has coped with every emergency and adapted herself to every change in the military situation. To organisation is due the rehabilitation, the marshalling of the forces of Austria and Turkey. From organisation springs her resourcefulness and the ability to meet the problem of feeding her population ; her success in finding substitutes for many, if not all the necessities for not only continuing the campaign but adding new and dreadful horrors to it. To organisation is due that propaganda, through the channels of the press and through other mediums, by which she hopes to impress neutrals, disturb her enemies and cheer her own people.

This in short is the reason why Germany stands where she does and is able not only to continue the war, but to press her offensive with much if not all of that ferocious energy which marked her first onslaught. Germany is an organised nation. Everything with her moves like the parts of some vast, complex, but marvellously efficient machine. There is a directing force which everyone recognises and obeys. Every

man has his task to perform, and there are few, if any, round pegs in square holes. Germany is an organised nation, organised nationally and economically, organised for war and for peace. We are not. Yet if we are to conquer we too must organise. For the difference between an organised and an unorganised nation is the difference between an army and a mob, between the power of our great industrial organisations and the utter helplessness of the individual worker.

Since war broke out it is true we have made some small piecemeal attempts at organisation. But the problem cannot be solved by attacking it in parts, but as a whole. I believe that the resources of Britain and her Allies are so overwhelmingly superior to those of our enemy, that being organised success must inevitably follow. I believe that through organisation, and organisation alone, can we hope to achieve decisive and speedy victory in this great war, and through organisation alone can we hope after peace has been restored, to reap the fruits of our great efforts and build up upon a sound social and economic foundation a truly great nation, worthy of our race, of our traditions and of the higher civilisation. I hope and believe that in this great national work—in which if it is to be successful all classes must work together with unfaltering purpose—the great Labour movement of Britain which has put in a claim to its proper share in the government of the nation, will take its place in the vanguard.

VI

RESPONSIBILITIES OF EMPIRE *

This ceremony, which is only incidentally personal to myself as the representative of Australia, is indeed one to kindle the imagination and fill the mind with glorious images of the greatness of our destiny. Consider the circumstances under which we stand here to-day in the Council Chamber of this great city, the throbbing heart of the mighty British Empire.

For close upon two years we have been engaged in the greatest war of all time. At the very first peal of the tocsin the whole Empire stood on guard, the citizens of the Dominions with one accord laid aside all other things and rushed to the standard. And here in this ancient citadel of our civic liberties, after nearly two years of the Empire's trial in the fiery furnace, you have conferred upon me the Freedom of this, the greatest city of the world, the cradle of our race, whose glorious traditions stretch back into the grey dawn of time; which was before Cæsar and

* Speech delivered at the Guildhall after being presented with the Freedom of the City of London, April 18.

his legions came; which has seen Celt, Saxon and Norman merge into one people; which has defied the arbitrary power of kings; whose growth has kept pace with that of our race which has watched the nation send out its sturdy broods to the furthest corners of the earth and seen them increase and multiply; whose power for centuries has extended throughout the world; whose fame is known wherever men gather together; and which now, resolutely determined to continue in this great struggle until victory crowns our arms, stands and gathers Australia into her ample bosom and in fitting token of the part she has played, and is playing in this war, bids her stand by her side as her equal and dowers her with all the rights of her ancient citizenship.

What a spectacle does this Empire of ours—unprepared for war though she was—present in this the hour of her greatest trial! What a thrill goes through all who boast British blood in their veins at the sight of a united people fighting with indomitable courage for all they hold dear. This war which has plunged civilisation into an inferno, which has saturated the earth with the blood of our sons and brought the bitterness of sorrow that waits upon death into the homes of those who loved them, has welded the scattered nations of our Empire into one united people. Though now we pass through the valley of the shadow of death yet shall we be lifted to heights where, illumined by the spirit of self-sacrifice, we shall see a land more glorious than we have ever known, into which, if we prove ourselves worthy, we may enter. The British race has found its soul, and I, as an Australian, as a citizen and representative of a democracy that, hating war, yet prepared for it, rejoice that I am privileged to live in these days and be akin to the valiant dead who died gladly, and to the valiant living who daily walk into the very jaws of death in order that their country and their liberties may be saved.

This war has drawn all parts of the Empire and all classes closer together. I feel, and I am sure that my fellow citizens in Australia will feel, that by this ceremony you symbolise that unity of ideals, of purpose, of race, and of destiny cemented by blood and self-sacrifice that now binds together the citizens of the British Empire. When I speak of our Empire and the great destiny that opens before it, I do not speak of territorial expansion nor of increase of wealth, but of wider opportunities for the development of the institutions of free government and of such economic and social conditions as are worthy of a great people, compatible with the integrity of the Empire, and which will ensure the peaceful nations of the earth absolute security from all who seek to disturb the world's peace.

This is what the Empire and its maintenance mean to me.

It is an ideal which should spur all sections of society to united action. And the possibilities of its realisation are even now unrolling themselves. In the sky, darkened as it is with the blood-red clouds of war, the gleam of a new dawn can be clearly seen. We shall see its glories if we prove ourselves worthy. But we can only do so by deeds. Each has to be done. The British Empire covers a fifth of the earth. Much of it is a veritable land of promise, an alluring bait to those powers who know but one law—that to the strong belong all things. Visionaries may babble about peace, but the stern lesson which the history of all ages as well as the great conflict in which the nations of the earth are now engaged, has to teach, is written in letters of fire so that all but those wilfully blind may read and mark.

If we are to hold this great Empire, we must be prepared to defend it. And since the defence of his country is the primary duty of every free man this task is one which as a democracy we ought gladly to undertake. The responsibility of the world's peace, of true civilisation and the future of democracy depend upon our ability to do so. But it is no light task. See where we stand and take heed. Look at the spaces covered by the great Dominions of Canada, Australasia, and South Africa. Australia and Canada are both larger than the United States of America. South Africa is larger than France and Germany combined. The United States of America has a population of a hundred millions and is not secure from danger. Yet these three Dominions—to say nothing of the Crown Colonies and other outposts of the Empire—with a combined area nearly three times that of the United States, have a population of only 15,000,000. After making every allowance for desert and barren lands, think how the palms of nations inflamed with the lust of conquest, desiring room for expansion, for a place in the sun, itch to gather those vast, rich and fertile lands within their grip, and then you will better understand what the defence of our Empire means.

Is it not as clear as noonday that in unity is our strength and our safety? How can the scanty population of our Dominions—cast upon their own resources—hope to hold their great heritage? The day may come when the Dominions can do so, but certainly that day is not yet. Now the other fact that stands out is that if we are to keep this Empire as a heritage for the British race, as I feel sure we are resolutely quite determined to do—we must create conditions under which the population of both these Islands and the Dominions will rapidly increase and multiply. And as mere numbers avail nothing, we must create an environment which will breed a virile people. Wealth will not save us if our crop of such men fail. Lacking men Rome and the mighty Empire of the Ancients fell and the dust of ages

covers their proud monuments. The defence of our Empire rests ultimately upon the basis of such a national policy in Britain herself as well as in the Dominions oversea that will organise and develop our tremendous resources, that will promote the welfare of the agricultural and manufacturing industries and ensure to the great masses of the people those opportunities of employment, those conditions and remuneration of labour and that standard of comfort which are the just heritage of a civilised people, and lacking which the British race will dwindle and degenerate and our mighty Empire crumble to decay. We must see to it, therefore, that from one end of this great Empire to the other the gates of opportunity shall be slammed in no man's face. There must be a chance for everyone.

I have a profound faith in the destiny of the British race. We are yet, despite conditions that would long ago have plunged lesser men into the abyss of degeneracy, full of the ancient valour of our race. I believe and rejoice that it is so, that the temper of the people is such that realising to the full the gravity of the situation, they are prepared to endure all things, to undergo all sacrifices to subordinate all things, in order that decisive victory may be ours. It is because of this spirit in which the British people are everywhere facing the present situation that I believe we shall not only emerge triumphant in this great struggle, but that purged of dross and purified by the spirit of self-sacrifice, we shall prove ourselves worthy of the great opportunity which now beckons us on.

TO CANADA

Verses suggested by the proposal to plant maple trees over the graves of
Canadians who have fallen on the fields of battle.

OH, land of gold and snow across the sea,
Through every changing season of thy year
War reaps her harvest of thy chivalry,
And claims her victims of thy loved and dear.

They lie at rest, and still there roars across
Their narrow graves the cannon's deafening boom.
Yet o'er those mounds already creeps the moss,
And with the soft warm rains fair flow'rs shall bloom.

With the long years to rise and pass away
Shall emblems of the land they loved be born.
In beauty burst, in fire shall end their day,
Each spring a glorious resurrection morn.

CHARLOTTE PIDGEON.

THE COMMERCIAL WAR

OUR NATIONAL TASK

THE great inroads made by Germany on the world's commerce have been accomplished as much by superior initiative, intelligence, and organisation, as by official assistance. Only a hypocritical coward would assign their success entirely to tariffs and subsidies, and would call upon our Government to imitate them without himself exhibiting the same resourcefulness as our enemy. Before then we consider in what way legislation or tariffs can assist us we must make up our minds to be worthy of such assistance and capable of utilising it to the full.

A tariff can do nothing for an industry which is not organised to take advantage of its opportunities. It is essential to take broad views and to recognise that the function of the manufacturer and merchant is to serve humanity by supplying its wants. Of course the manufacturer must live, and to live must make a profit, but the nation in its capacity as consumer is not concerned with the profits incidental to making and distribution. The better the goods and the more promptly and evenly they are distributed, the higher the profit-wage which the consumer is willing to pay. Thus in the long run duty and self-interest coincide, and the maximum profit accrues to him who makes the best goods and distributes them in the best and most economical way. This has in the past been too much overlooked.

We have ignored the fact that those goods are best which best suit the best interests of the consumer. Clearly therefore our manufacturers have as a preliminary to study the real requirements of the buying public. This has been largely done by certain sections of the trading community, though it is possible that these sections are not really the most worthy of esteem. The patent medicine vendor certainly studies his public, and so does the maker of toilet and beauty nostrums. If in matters of more serious import the same close attention to requirements were given our manufacturers would have advanced a long way towards meeting and crushing foreign competition.

There is no evidence that either the German or the American

has any essential superiority over the Briton as regards the quality of the goods he makes. We have long been passive victims of the American typewriter combine, and have apparently regarded typewriters as outside the possibilities of effective competition on our part. Yet in recent years a British firm have produced a machine, at about half the price of the ordinary American typewriter, which is simpler and quite as effective and durable. We have been accustomed to import large quantities of toys, and to acquiesce in the idea that it was impossible to produce them in this country. Yet at the present moment British skill is producing toys not appreciably higher in price, but better in material and finish and certainly more ingenious in idea and construction, than those formerly supplied by our enemies. The pressure of war has forced us to reveal those sterling qualities which have hitherto been in abeyance. We must see to it, that when this pressure is removed our effort continues, so that it is not a mere spurt but a steady advance. We must continue after careful inquiry to make the best goods and to distribute them in the best and most economical way.

We have many ancient failings to overcome. Our neglect to employ the resources of science, our reluctance to take broad views, have led us to ignore the necessity of combination. We have exhibited too much petty jealousy of one another. Some few years ago there was an attempt made to induce those handling certain commodities to combine for the purpose of general publicity. The attempt failed because of this jealousy, the common attitude being, "if we advertise in general terms we are doing as much to help our competitors in the trade as ourselves." There was no recognition of the principle that to awaken the minds of the public to the merits of the particular commodity was to benefit each individual concerned in handling that commodity. We must get rid of this petty jealousy and form effective combinations sufficiently powerful to make their influence felt both in home and world markets. Such combinations could afford the best, even if most costly, methods of inquiry and marketing, so as to ensure that the goods produced were exactly suited to the consumer's requirements and were forcibly brought to his notice. The history of the Imperial British Tobacco Company demonstrates the value of combination. We must aim at adaptability of our methods to the varying circumstances of each particular market, and back that adaptability up by an equal measure of sensible combined methods of marketing.

Thus the problem of how to substitute British made goods for German is of twofold aspect. We must consider not only the methods of production with all that they involve, but also

means and organisation for marketing the finished products. It is possibly in the latter respect that we have in the past mostly fallen short, and it will be well to devote a little attention to that side before dealing with the question involved in production.

One great difficulty in the way of pushing British goods even in our own country is the fact that in too many cases the retail seller is largely in the hands of the factor or merchant, and has no ready means of direct access to the actual manufacturer. This applies of course to foreign markets as well. Now it is in no way a reflection on the merchant when we point out that he is indifferent to the country of origin of the goods he handles. He is actuated by two interdependent motives, namely, the desire to handle the goods most in demand and the wish to make the maximum profit from what he handles. It follows that *ceteris paribus* the German article finds as ready acceptance with the factor as does the British. Some means must be devised for bringing the manufacturer much more frequently and effectively into touch with the real purchaser. At the present moment in too many cases the manufacturer's representative calls only on the wholesale houses, and is thus shut off from direct appeal to the retailer. With certain foreign markets the case is perhaps even worse, inasmuch as it is very rarely that one finds a British manufacturer sending a qualified traveller regularly to these countries. It is left for the agency houses to exhibit samples of British manufactures.

The factor performs a very useful function, since it is impossible for the average retailer to place a multitude of small orders with a large number of different manufacturers. It is much more convenient to hand a general indent to the merchant or wholesaler. This involves only the one account for the retailer. We cannot therefore ignore the middleman. This would be neither fair nor judicious, but it is too much to expect him to display the same enthusiasm for the goods of the score of manufacturers whom he has on his books as each manufacturer might reasonably be expected to display for his own. How can pressure be brought to bear on the wholesaler to induce him to confine his operations to British goods? If we have in each line of production our presupposed powerful combination, would it not be possible so to frame contracts with the middlemen that they would be precluded from handling goods of enemy origin? Viewed from the purely business standpoint it would be simply a question of which would be more profitable, to handle only goods from the British Empire and allied countries, or to be shut out altogether from handling such goods. If our position is rendered sufficiently strong, there is no doubt which alternative would be chosen.

Our first measures must then be directed towards strengthening in all markets the demand for British goods, assuming that we have studied our markets and that those goods are eminently suitable. This has hitherto certainly not been the case with regard to the foreign markets. If we take the consular reports we find them filled *ad nauseam* with references to our blundering ineptitude in dealing with these markets.

Perhaps, however, two examples may be given:—In the latest annual report on the trade of the Gold Coast Colony, it is stated that all the merchants of the Colony are unanimous in contrasting the British manufacturer unfavourably with his German rival in the matter of sending out samples. They say that the German samples are always put up in such a manner, and prices and conditions set forth so clearly that their merits and details can be grasped without effort. The much greater readiness of the German manufacturer to carry out the wishes of the prospective purchaser in the matter of making slight alterations in his wares to meet local requirements is also a subject of frequent remark, and is said to have helped the development of German trade in the Colony very considerably.

The British Vice-Consul at Venice draws attention to the necessity of altering our methods of trading with our Italian allies. Before the outbreak of war, commercial travellers from this country were never frequent visitors to Italy, while there is not a town which has not been visited by German travellers. Despite the close relationship now existing between the United Kingdom and Italy, the Vice-Consul reporting states that, so far as he is aware, no British commercial traveller has visited Venice since the commencement of hostilities. Before the war, German travellers, speaking English, Italian, and French, were often employed by Italian firms, in the absence of British travellers, to conduct business with the United Kingdom. The Vice-Consul insists upon the necessity of British firms conforming to the weights, measures, currency and usages of the country to which exports are being sent.

We have persistently ignored the fundamental principle of all commerce, namely, that the purchaser buys what he wants and not necessarily what the seller has to offer. It would therefore seem to be obvious that the first step to be taken is to find out what our prospective customer really wants, and it is in drawing attention to these requirements of foreign markets that the value of the consular reports consists. Yet the recommendations persistently made in these reports are just as persistently ignored by the British manufacturer. We may search the whole world in vain for possible markets if we consistently endeavour to thrust upon those markets unsuitable goods. We should not hesitate to

consign to a lunatic asylum any person who endeavoured to make a fortune by pushing seal-skin jackets and fur-lined overcoats in the centre of tropical Africa, yet for many years in many places we have been committing to a less degree precisely the same fatal blunder. Our attitude has been that of gracious benefactors kindly offering inferior races commodities which they were morally bound to require, but which we were not inclined in any way to modify to meet the wishes of those to whom they were offered. This "take it or leave it" attitude might not be injurious if there were no competitors, but it is fatal immediately intelligent and organised competition arises.

Not only in the actual style of our goods have we ignored the local requirements, but we have been equally indifferent in the method of presentation of our catalogues and our invoices, whilst our terms of business have too often been such as to deter rather than encourage prospective buyers. There are at the present moment, for example, great openings in Russia which, not only in the older provinces but also in Siberia, has lands which are rapidly developing and contain almost fabulous riches, agricultural and mineral. To send to such a country a price list in the English language, with measurements in feet and inches, and prices in pounds, shillings, and pence, is a most futile proceeding. Can we not picture the state of mind of a London shopkeeper receiving a catalogue in Chinese, with prices in taels? Could such a man replenish his stocks from such a catalogue? Yet this is in principle what we too often expect our foreign customers to do, merely to suit our own convenience. Not only so but we decline to quote, for example, c.i.f. terms, or to quote them in the currency of the buying country. Thus the unhappy inquirer for British goods has not only as a preliminary to find a translator of a British catalogue, but has after that to turn the British weight and measures into his own system, whether that involves the quintal, the pikul, or the berkovatz. Then he has probably to estimate the cost of insurance and freight, to add that to the price of his goods, and finally to express the total in francs, tikuls, or roubles. The British producer thereby stupidly handicaps himself in the face of competition. The German catalogue will almost invariably be in the language of the buying country, with prices expressed in the units of that country; the terms will generally be c.i.f. to the principal port. Can we not make up our minds to act in a similar manner, and thus to facilitate instead of hindering the growth of our business?

If in our search for markets we survey the world as it will be at the end of the war we shall find that, first of all, the component parts of the British Empire will be eager to enter into closer bonds of union, both politically and commercially. There will

be a great stirring in Canada, Australasia, South Africa, and India. All these countries will require the machinery for agriculture, mines, and manufactures. Is it not typical of our indifference that we have allowed an American company to become the principal purveyors of agricultural machinery to Australia? Was it not a reflection on the engineering firms of this country that the Burma State Railways placed the contract for their Gokteik viaduct with an American firm? Why should we allow German firms to supply the accessories of electric traction and of light railways to our larger Indian towns? These are random instances indicative of directions in which intelligent effort can effect much in these Dominions.

It is gratifying to note that official India is apparently about to move, since Mr. A. Chamberlain has announced that the Government of India has appointed a Commission to examine the possibilities of further industrial development in India, with special reference to possible openings for the profitable employment of Indian capital. Sir Thomas Holland (late head of the Geological Survey) will preside. He is an energetic Canadian who did much for the development of Indian industries coming under the influence of the Geological Survey, and is now Professor of Geology at Manchester. It is to be hoped that he will infuse a little of his own energy into his commission and will see that its report is acted upon, not pigeon-holed.

Next the allied powers will be eager to trade with one another. France, Russia, Italy, Serbia, Belgium, will all be in the throes of new birth. There will be cities to rebuild, manufactures to reorganise, mines to re-open, farms to re-stock. Here again we who so far have suffered only negligibly from the wastage of war should have a great opportunity, but one which will never recur if neglected. The business man will find chances of increasing his output, the patriot of enhancing the reputation of his country, and the humanitarian of freeing friendly nations from the thralldom of German commercial exploitation. For example, Russia's trade with Germany used to be of the value of some £40,000,000 a year. Russia will gladly give this to her Allies if we only make some effort to suit the market. Lastly neutral countries, and particularly those in Asia, will share in the forward movement of the early years of peace. China will inevitably progress with great rapidity, and Germany will make every effort to handle the principal share of the profits incidental to that progress. The South American Republics will be even more infested with German commercial spies than before the war. Are we to allow this to continue? Germany will certainly strain every nerve to maintain her pre-war position. It is reported that in anticipation of Great Britain imposing protective duties on the products of

the central allies, but not on those of neutrals, Germany has already begun to take measures to establish business houses in Switzerland.

An example of the results of our *laissez-faire* policy is to be found in Siam. This highly interesting country is, with the exception of China, the last independent portion of the mainland of Eastern Asia. Situated as the country is like a wedge between English and French possessions one would have imagined that English and French influence would have been paramount at its capital. Yet we find that with the exception of the Education and Police Departments practically everything is in German hands. They control the railways, the telegraphs, and the banks. The ramifications of their influence extend in all directions, and that influence is exercised unsparingly to the political and commercial detriment of both France and Britain. Politically Siam is encouraged to regard Germany as a friendly neutral, and as a possible bulwark against any attempted squeeze on the part of her powerful neighbours, such as France exercised over the Chantabun affair. Siam possesses great natural resources. In the north from Chiangmai to the Burmese frontier are the finest teak forests. These fortunately are mainly worked under concessions held by the Bombay-Burma Trading Company. The south is very largely the delta of the Meinam, and like Lower Burma is a great rice-growing country. The rice milling and exporting industry, which when I first knew Siam was entirely in British hands, has now passed almost as entirely into German. Yet the present king of Siam is an Oxford man, and has the same affection for this country as Chulalongkorn, his father. Siam then offers a fruitful field for energetic endeavour.

Given the organisation which is necessary we should have no difficulty in securing a legitimate share in the growing business with the three classes of countries mentioned above. A strong combination of such firms as are to be found in Gainsborough and Lincoln could easily produce an overwhelmingly favourable impression of British agricultural machinery, and the same would be the case with almost every type of British manufacture.

Before, however, we can exploit home, Empire, Allied and neutral markets we must organise our production. Having assimilated the reports of our commercial representatives at home and abroad, whether these representatives are of consular rank or are the salaried emissaries of our combined producing firms, we must act on these reports. This means that we must be more accessible to ideas than we have hitherto been. Just before the outbreak of war there was a rather turgid correspondence in the Press as to the place of the graduate in business. Most of the writers showed a lamentable ignorance of the true

function of education. That function is not to turn out counting machines or substitutes for office files, but to make complete men. If our universities can equip men with sound, well-trained minds and disciplined wills, and endow them with breadth of view, keenness of insight, and undeviating honesty of purpose and performance, then the more university men we have in business the better for business and for the Empire. But the universities must not be allowed to degenerate into mere business training academies on the model of those private venture institutions which aim at supplementing the more obvious defects of our primary schools. We want the breadth, the atmosphere which real education should give, and not the narrow and cramped products of premature specialisation.

The problems to be solved in the commercial world are as vital to our safety as those in the sphere of military policy. We want, therefore, a certain proportion of the best intellects in the country, whether young or old, to devote themselves to commerce in all its branches. What are the problems the nation has to solve? As I have said, we have first of all to eliminate personal jealousy and mere huckstering competition from our methods, so as to permit of the necessary combination along suitable lines. We must next encourage ideas, welcome the scientific investigator, and subsidise the inventor. Then we must offer promotion to the right man, whether he be the son of the proprietor or of the charwoman. British initiative has been too much choked by the attitude represented by the worthy head of a firm who, on some subordinate being praised to him, said: "He'll have to be sat upon. I suppose he is aiming at a partnership." Well, and why not? Are not brains as essential to the conduct of a business as hereditary influence or the command of the purse? There should be a career open for all young men of ability and character, and such should not be condemned to drudge for ever, trembling at the frown or competing for the smile of an irresponsible employer.

In the United States this necessity for the promotion of the efficient and intelligent has long been recognised with the happiest results. One of the reasons why American labour-saving appliances have come so much to the front in all parts of the world is that the young man of inventive genius finds himself appreciated and rewarded. The British workman of every grade is no whit inferior to his American competitor, and under the stimulus of encouragement would prove himself as capable of initiating improvements and making suggestions. We cannot afford to neglect ideas from whatever source they emanate. Incidentally, earnest consideration should be given to the question whether Trade Union limitation of output is not injurious to

the interests alike of the employer, the workman, and the nation.

We have then to improve our educational system ; to substitute reasonable conjoint action for ultra-competitive methods ; to study our markets and act upon the results of our study ; to encourage talent, invention, and research ; and finally to aim at the enduring rather than the immediate result. When we have made up our minds to do all that we can for ourselves we must next seek help from two sources, from banks and from the Government, and as a preliminary we must show to all the world that we are determined to help ourselves.

If we succeed in initiating movements in the direction indicated above, if we show that we are in earnest in eradicating our past faults, we shall then be in a very strong position for insisting on a modification or even a reversal of the past attitude of our Government. It is encouraging to see that such representative bodies as the Chambers of Commerce all over the country, singly and in association, are devoting their close attention to this question of commercial policy. The old free import fallacy—for we have never had *free trade*—is fast losing its adherents. It would seem to be highly improbable that any politician will in future have the audacity to brighten his stump orations by lurid references to the hungry 40's and the large and small loaf, whilst the battle cry "hands off the people's food" is, one would hope, as extinct as the dodo. We may now look for a rational investigation and consideration of the economic and political principles underlying all tariffs. First of all, is it not legitimate to regard one's own country as peculiarly the object of Government's care and attention? If that is granted we see at once that all things are lawful and expedient which tend to enhance the prosperity of our people, and we cease to believe that a country is benefited by exporting its capital to alien lands. The position is well summed up by the resolution of the Norwich Chamber: "This war has shown that the strength and safety of the nation in times of national peril lie in the possession by the nation of power to produce its requirements from its own soil and factories rather than in the possession of mere symbols of values." We must then see that as far as possible our country is rendered self-supporting, and that its surplus wealth, the result of the thrift of its people, is employed in its own industries. We shall then deserve and command the assistance of those whom we have entrusted with the control of our finance and our legislation.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

BRITISH TRADE POLICY AFTER THE WAR

THE restoration of peace will introduce an entirely new commercial era, and it is now quite clear that this country will have to revolutionise her fiscal policy if she is to maintain her position in the industrial and political world. It is therefore a matter for very great congratulation that there have recently been signs—notably in Manchester—in hitherto Free Trade circles of recognition of this most important fact.

Unfortunately, however, the Government appear unable to reach any decision, or to commit themselves to any principle on the subject. They are content to "Wait and see," and thus the Economic Congress at Paris, which might be fruitful of great results, seems likely to prove barren.

Our fiscal policy hereafter should fall into four main divisions:—Imperial Preference; Reciprocity between the Allies; a General Tariff (applicable to neutrals); a Maximum Tariff (against Germany, Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria). Whilst it may not be possible to frame the details of these tariffs at the present time, owing to the uncertainty existing as to the future state of the world's markets, it is certainly feasible to establish the principle, and it is important that the heavy preliminary work inseparable from such a scheme should be undertaken now, so that on the cessation of hostilities the necessary treaties can be entered upon promptly. Economic agreements must be concluded concurrently with the peace treaty, and the task will be enormously simplified if the preliminary decisions are reached now.

As to Imperial Preference, a special Imperial Conference, at which India must be directly represented, should be summoned now to consider the broad details of the scheme. Interchange of opinion with such Dominion statesmen as Sir Robert Borden, Mr. Fisher, and Mr. Hughes, has doubtless been most valuable, but a Conference is necessary if trade policy within the Empire is to be satisfactorily settled in general outline at the present

time. And such a settlement now would only be a measure of common prudence and foresight, for we should know our own minds before we sit in conference at the peace negotiations.

Whilst the Mother Country is primarily a manufacturing nation the Dominions are mainly producers of raw materials, with young and vigorous manufactures as auxiliary sources of prosperity. The interests of the two parties are obviously therefore not identical. It is evident that the Dominions could not afford to grant Free Trade to the Motherland, since to do so would be to strangle their own industries, and to condemn themselves to a permanent condition of economic dependence. But this country could well afford to grant Free Trade to the Dominions, and it is desirable that she should do so in respect of foodstuffs and raw materials. Hitherto the great Free Trade bogey has been the spectre of dear bread. There are such vast supplies of wheat available in the Empire that the free introduction of Colonial corn would absolutely dispose of such a menace. Even a moderate tax on Colonial foodstuffs is most strongly to be condemned. We should do our utmost to ensure a cheap and liberal supply of food for the population of these islands, and this can most effectively be done by the maintenance of Free Trade in Colonial produce.

Similarly with regard to raw materials. The cheaper our manufacturers can produce their goods the better market they will obtain, and therefore the free introduction of Colonial raw materials is a matter of importance.

A small preferential tariff should be reserved solely for luxuries and manufactured articles.

When we turn to an examination of future trade relations with our Allies much the same considerations should guide us. Small preferential duties only should be imposed on foodstuffs and raw materials. Thus an almost nominal tax should be levied on Russian wheat. Manufactures, however, would obviously be subject to considerably higher duties than those to which the Colonial articles would be liable. The manufactures of such countries as France and Italy are considerably more serious rivals in the home markets than the manufactures of the Dominions, and must be treated accordingly. The tariff on manufactures would, however, afford considerable scope for bargaining, and would largely depend on the terms offered our goods in the allied markets. Luxuries would be subject to a higher rate, but in return for suitable concessions we could well grant generous treatment in respect of French and Portuguese wines.

The general tariff would apply to all neutrals in the present

war, and would consist of three sections:—a comparatively low duty on foodstuffs and raw materials; a higher duty on manufactures; and a heavy duty on luxuries.

It is quite conceivable that a properly devised general tariff would in time secure valuable offers from neutrals, and if they were prepared to yield similar concessions to those granted by our Allies it might be desirable to admit them to the preferential tariff. Presumably the reciprocity treaties with our Allies would be concluded for a fixed term of years with the option of renewal, and very naturally our Allies would demand that this preferential tariff should not be freely extended, since in course of time it might thus cease to be preferential. In view, however, of the considerations just advanced it would not appear to be policy to bind ourselves absolutely against extension, and probably the interests of both parties would be most fairly met by a provision that no neutral should be admitted to the preferential tariff within a certain period—say, five years. This would protect the legitimate interests of our Allies, and at the same time leave us a certain scope to avail ourselves of valuable offers from neutral Powers.

The question of a maximum tariff directed against Germany and her associates is very much more complex, and is inseparably bound up with the whole question of German trade activity in this country. The war has opened our eyes as to the widespread and nefarious German commercial influence exerted in Great Britain, and as to the extent to which our industries had become dependent on German supplies. We must take energetic steps to prevent a recurrence of this in the future.

Firstly, no firm, wholly or partially German or Austrian, should hereafter be allowed to run business establishments* or factories in this country, and all existing German or Austrian businesses should be confiscated. The funds resulting from their assets could be used in compensating Englishmen losing businesses in Germany. Secondly, the naturalisation laws should be made very much more stringent, and interned Austrians and Germans, whether native or naturalised, should be deported to their own countries. The existing Aliens Act should also be strengthened so as to prevent the immigration of undesirable foreigners, German or otherwise. These steps would probably uproot secret German influence, and are essential preliminaries to the imposition of a maximum tariff.

The framing of such a tariff should be a matter for very careful deliberation. Many people are clamouring for prohibitive duties on every German article. I do not think this wise.

* Under this heading would come German and Austrian steamship companies.

There are two considerations which should guide us. Firstly, the conclusion of this war will leave Germany bankrupt. Her paper currency will then collapse with a crash, and we shall witness the most colossal financial failure in history. Germany of course will be principally affected, but so inter-dependent is the modern financial and commercial world that the ramifications of this failure are bound to be widespread, and every civilised nation is certain to feel its adverse influence. Now if the Allies levy prohibitive duties on every German import they perpetuate this condition of bankruptcy; they indefinitely prevent Germany from discharging her liabilities, and they consequently wound themselves in wounding their adversary.

Secondly, such a policy would indefinitely maintain a spirit of intense hatred between the two nations. It is inconceivable that our relations should be cordial until a very long period after the war has elapsed. Many necessary restrictions and humiliations will have for the safety of the Allies to be imposed on Germany, but it would be folly to exacerbate the spirit of resentment by gratuitous restraints. A policy of mere revenge has always in history recoiled on the head of the offender. We wish to restore an honourable and lasting peace. We shall therefore refrain from purposeless restrictions and humiliations. We shall aim only at those measures of retributive justice and of future safety which the occasion demands, and we shall thus lay the best foundation for abiding peace.

The maximum tariff, therefore, although heavy should not be prohibitive, save in respect of such an article as dyes—where for the protection of an important but only partially developed British industry such prohibitive duties would be vitally necessary. The tariff, in other words, should be framed, not as a penal measure, but exclusively as a measure of protection against a future German dominance of the allied markets.

From this brief review of the fiscal problem which will confront this country at the close of the war it is evident that the most consummate statesmanship will be necessary if our future policy is to be wisely settled. I think there is a large recognition in hitherto Free Trade circles that things cannot revert to their former status—that a big change is inevitable. I believe that there is a greater disposition than ever before to examine this important question with unprejudiced eyes, although probably the majority of convinced Free Traders have not yet persuaded themselves to accept such an entire revolution as I have advocated—they appear to have advanced no further than the principle of differential treatment against Germany, and to justify that treatment solely on moral grounds—grounds

which, as I have already explained, I consider insufficient and entirely mistaken.

But if Free Traders admit the case for differential treatment against Germany logically they must accept the principle of a comprehensive tariff, since only by concerted action with our Dominions and Allies can differential treatment against the enemy be rendered effective. And concerted action can only be ensured and made lasting by the grant of a preferential tariff on the part of this country. For unless we can give our Allies an advantage over other nations in our own markets there is small inducement for a firm and durable agreement. And furthermore there is no prospect of our obtaining the preference which we shall desire in the markets of France, Belgium, Italy, and Russia save by this means. This preference will be most important to us to compensate for the loss of the German market, and it can only be gained by the concession of preferential treatment on our side.

I regard such a trade agreement as essential to our future political and economic safety. For unless we take concerted action with our Allies we may rest assured that at no distant date Germany will re-establish her former hold of European markets, and actuated by an intense spirit of hatred against this country will be an even more powerful competitor than in the past. Again, such a policy of commercial agreement will be the strongest guarantee for the preservation of the present happy relations between the Allies, and therefore the strongest protection against any future German attempt to renew the struggle for political and military supremacy. However onerous the terms of peace may be, nothing but the most careful watchfulness and the most complete unity amongst the present Allies will prevent further German intrigues. The best guarantee we have for political union is commercial union.

The same argument applies with even stronger force to our Dominions. It is evident that we have now arrived at a climax in the history of our Empire. The Colonies and Dependencies have made magnificent sacrifices in this great struggle, and they will rightly demand for the future a real share in Imperial counsels. They have nobly shared the burden; they must be granted an effective voice in the control of Imperial policy. Otherwise gradually and inevitably they will drift apart into independent communities. Now the ultimate goal is a Federal Parliament of the Empire. Various prejudices have hitherto prevented this, and possibly an intermediate stage may even yet be required before the ideal is finally reached. But in any event a generous policy of Imperial Preference will establish political union more firmly and more speedily than any other course

that can be devised. The concession of tangible benefits and privileges will reinforce the existing Imperial sentiment; will preserve its glow after the passion of the present great events has expired; will firmly lay the foundations of a lasting political union.

And apart from these political considerations, a measure of Imperial Preference would afford mutually important trade benefits, for such an agreement would foster the natural resources of the Dominions and Dependencies to the utmost, and render the Empire entirely self-supporting. The present war has shown the importance of reliance as far as possible upon internal resources, and only a well-considered commercial union can ensure this. Imperial Preference would make the British Empire the greatest organised market in the world, and would give this country and her Dominions a commanding position in the bargaining contest that will signalise the opening of the new era. Organisation is essential if we are to retain our place in commerce; we cannot continue the present policy of *laissez faire*.

In the light of the events of the past two years Tariff Reform appears so necessary that probably to-day in some form or other it would be endorsed by an overwhelming majority of the electorate. Free Traders, however, are entitled to call for some details before sanctioning the principle, for in the details will lie the wisdom or unwisdom of the change of policy. No responsible man would advocate a general return to the unscientific and hideous Protection of the early nineteenth century, and we must be on our guard against any relapse into that futile system such as a general prohibitive tariff against Germany. Our new protective policy must be shaped on reasonable and moderate lines, and its details must be drafted after conference with representative leaders of the great industries of the country. In broad outline it should assume the form I have already advocated: free entry of Colonial foodstuffs and raw materials; a low preferential duty on allied foodstuffs and raw materials; a comparatively low tax on similar imports from neutral countries; and duties graduated in accordance with the article and its country of origin on all manufactures and luxuries.

Such a policy I believe would be economically sound. It would ensure a good market for British manufactures, whilst the free import of Colonial produce would safeguard the population of this country from a serious rise in prices. There might be a slight upward tendency, but this would be more than covered by the increased work and wages obtainable. A gradual and unjustifiable rise in tariff duties would be prevented by the strong democratic spirit of the country, for any Government which

pandered to trusts or commercial "rings" would do so with the knowledge of certain and disastrous defeat at the next election. The game would not be worth the candle.*

A reasonable and comprehensive tariff would give this country a market such as it has never before possessed, but certain subsidiary reforms are necessary in order to reap the full advantages of such a policy. A ministry of commerce should be formed to relieve the Board of Trade of its existing *commercial* functions, and to develop these functions in a liberal spirit. Far too little attention in the past has been bestowed on science in relation to industry, and it is precisely owing to their painstaking efforts in this direction that the Germans have gained much of their success. The new ministry in conjunction with the Board of Education should encourage and subsidise technical instruction; expensive but useful scientific processes should be supported, and genuine inventions should not be frustrated for lack of funds. The policy of subsidies, pursued with discrimination, is a useful one, and can be employed with advantage in other spheres than the purely scientific—e.g., shipping. The subsidy advanced by the government of the day to the Cunard Company on the *Lusitania* and the *Mauretania* more than justified itself, and this is a precedent which could doubtless be followed advantageously in other cases.

But abroad much work is also needed. Commercial qualifications should be encouraged in our consular representatives, and they should be required to obtain and forward trustworthy information as to the commercial openings in the countries to which they are accredited. The British Consul should be the Ambassador of British trade.

In these ways the Government could encourage British commerce, but, of course, in the last resort everything depends on our manufacturers themselves. They are entitled to the fullest support and assistance, but unless they show a capacity to adapt themselves to the varying conditions of the world's markets State aid will be of very limited value. There have of recent years been suggestions that British manufacturers are not disposed to take the same trouble as their German and American competitors to meet the requirements of foreign customers. Some of this diffidence may have arisen from ignorance of local needs; an efficient consular service would remove all excuse for this. The

* Democratic influence has not prevented tariff manipulation in the United States, since owing to the political constitution an election is only possible at certain fixed stated intervals, and consequently, except at election time, popular interest tends to be stifled. Thus there is not sufficient watchfulness to prevent corruption. But in the United Kingdom an election may be rendered necessary at any time owing to a sudden political crisis. The influence of the electorate is more constant and direct, and therefore the protection against corruption is much stronger.

British Government should do its utmost to foster openings for British trade ; British merchants should then make the most of the opportunity thus secured. If our trade policy is properly adjusted there will on the restoration of peace be rich new fields for the exercise of British enterprise, and our manufacturers must take full advantage of the altered conditions.

Our commercial men must abandon unprogressive conservatism, however, not only in the foreign field but in the home field also. I have spoken of the desirability of Government aid for scientific research in connection with industry. Here, again, our manufacturers can do much to help themselves. There has been a tendency in commercial circles to treat scientific assistance in Cinderella fashion, and consequently hitherto many of our most competent engineers and chemists have gone abroad where their services have been better appreciated. Government aid would tend to redress this state of affairs, but not effectually unless British manufacturers will co-operate. Our leading industrial firms could do much to obtain the fullest advantage from technical assistance by contributing, for example, towards the endowment of scientific scholarships in their own localities, and even the smaller firms could play some part in such a movement.

British trade at the close of the war will find itself confronted by a serious crisis—a crisis which can only be resolved favourably by foresight and organisation now. The Government must give a lead ; they must make an authoritative announcement of their fiscal and commercial intentions. Mere ambiguous platitudes are useless ; there is urgent necessity to take action now, so as to ensure a settled and cohesive policy immediately on the cessation of hostilities. British manufacturers must show themselves ready to co-operate promptly and wholeheartedly. A magnificent opportunity lies ahead. If we fail to seize it the blame for the decline which will assuredly follow will rest upon the Cabinet and our commercial men.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

THE DOMINIONS AND IMPERIAL PREFERENCE

STORY OF THE MOVEMENT

MR. HUGHES, the Australian Prime Minister, in a series of remarkable and stirring speeches, has been urging the Motherland to decide and declare without delay what is to be her trade policy after the war. He has not concealed from us what sort of a policy it is that he wants us to adopt. He desires above all things to destroy German influence in our own trade and industry, to organise the resources of the Empire, and by every means in our power to stimulate inter-Imperial in preference to foreign trade. In giving expression to these views he speaks not for himself alone, but for the great Dominion which he represents. Australians are said to be enthusiastic, almost unanimous, in their support of their Premier. More than this, he may be regarded as the spokesman of the other great Dominions also, for previous to his arrival in Britain he had visited them and had become acquainted with their views.

After all, to strengthen the commercial bonds between Britain and the Oversea States is what the latter have been desiring for years, for so long that they were beginning to despair of ever effecting it, and their hearts were becoming sick with hope deferred. They had decided, too, on the most efficacious means to their end. The present seems not an inopportune time for recalling what a very decided attitude the Dominions have from the beginning taken up as to this question of Imperial Preference.

In studying the story of the Imperial Preference movement one is very soon reminded that the Colonies forced it on Mr. Chamberlain, not Mr. Chamberlain on the Colonies. England's greatest Colonial Secretary adopted it because he believed it was the only alternative to the ultimate dissolution of the Empire. Unless the Mother Country and Dominions move towards one another, they will drift apart—force of circumstances and not their own desires will compel them so to do. If we will not let them establish trade connections here, they will form them elsewhere, and will gradually be drawn from us to the country or countries

where their interests lie. Mr. Chamberlain rightly considered that this would be a disaster almost without parallel in the history of Britain, and proceeded to consider how it could be averted. Two expedients that suggested themselves to him were those of a Zollverein or customs union which should establish inter-Imperial Free Trade, and of an Advisory Council of the Empire. But neither appealed to the Dominions, who brought forward an alternative scheme of their own, Imperial Preference. Mr. Chamberlain did not allow himself to be persuaded to adopt it till after much hesitation, and he had employed every argument he could think of to win the Colonies over to his proposals. Perhaps his hesitancy may be traced to a partial appreciation of the difficulties in the way and the nature and magnitude of the opposition to be encountered. It was a stormy and tempestuous voyage upon which he and his party were about to embark, his conviction of its urgency and necessity being the only inducement to set out upon it. "We call our kinsmen to our councils, but when we get them there we refuse to listen to their advice," he says in his Preface to Dr. Cunningham's "Case against Free Trade"; "On one subject, and on one subject only, they have throughout spoken with a single voice. Common interests are the pledge of common action. A common trade policy is the indispensable basis of a common Imperial policy."

An early indication of the Preference movement in the Colonies was Sir John Macdonald's proposal in 1879, of a Reciprocity Treaty between England and Canada. At the first Colonial Conference in 1887, Mr. Hofmeyr, the then Premier of Cape Colony, suggested an Imperial Customs Union, under which each part of the Empire should levy a tax of 2 per cent. on all foreign imports, the proceeds to form a fund for Imperial Defence. This suggestion, which its author regarded as a stepping-stone to Imperial Free Trade, bore no fruit. The Ottawa Conference of 1894, at which Canada and Australia met together to discuss commercial questions, passed a resolution, "that this Conference records its belief in the advantageousness of a customs arrangement between Great Britain and her Colonies, with the specific object of placing inter-Imperial trade on a more favourable footing than foreign trade."

The second Colonial Conference, which met in the year of the Diamond Jubilee, showed that the Colonies had ceased to be contented with mere aspirations, but were eager to take some practical steps towards the achievement of their object. A necessary preliminary was to clear the path of obstacles; they therefore passed a resolution denouncing existing treaties which hampered commercial relations between Great Britain and her Colonies. To carry out this the commercial treaties with Germany

and Belgium were shortly afterwards terminated. Another resolution to the effect that the Premiers should discuss with their respective Colonies the probable effect of Preference on trade was also destined to have a practical result, no less a one than the establishment of the Canadian Preferential Tariff in 1897-8. But Canada was not the first Colony to set foot upon the path of Preference. Rhodesia, at the inspiration of the great Cecil Rhodes, had already given a lead, which in time all the great self-governing Dominions were to follow. The preferential principle has now been introduced into the tariffs of Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, who, with Canada, have all intimated that it would be more satisfactory if the Mother Country would make similar concessions to them, in which event they would be willing to consider the advisability of increasing the preference which they now give her. The Colonies have not only pointed out the road, and made the first advance, but hold out the promise of reward if we will fall in with them.

From the standpoint of Tariff Reformers the 1902 Conference was perhaps the most important. Although the South African War was in progress and Imperial enthusiasm at high tide, the proposal of an Advisory Council of the Empire which Mr. Chamberlain now brought forward for the second time—it had come up for discussion at the 1897 Conference—again failed to attract the Colonial statesmen. Nor was the subject of Defence more promising from the standpoint of advocates of Imperial union; it threatened to cause more discord than harmony. In connection with this two tendencies had made themselves manifest from the first: one, on the part of the Australians, to work for a local navy under local control; another, on the part of Canada, to shirk all responsibility in the matter. This attitude of discouraging passivity changed to one of eager activity when the subject of commercial union was under consideration. The assent of all the Oversea Premiers was given to resolutions in favour of Preferential Trade between the United Kingdom and the Dominions, declaring Free Trade impracticable in the present circumstances of the Colonies, and the desirability of Colonies which have not already done so giving preference to the Mother Country. Resolution 4, which may be regarded as both having inspired the Imperial Preference movement and being its chief justification, ran as follows:—

“That the Prime Ministers of the Colonies respectfully urge on His Majesty’s Government the expediency of granting in the United Kingdom preferential treatment to the products and manufactures of the Colonies either by exemption from or reduction of duties now or hereafter imposed.”

In the teeth of that emphatic resolution, couched in such unmistakable terms, Free Traders had the audacity to go

about the country asserting that the Colonies did not want Preference.

All the above resolutions in favour of Preference received the assent of the Premiers at the next Conference, which met in 1907 after the Liberals had been returned to power; but before the assembling of the 1911 Conference it was gently hinted to them that they would not be wise to raise again this thorny question. The attitude of His Majesty's Government reminds one of Barak, who, on finding that Balaam persisted in blessing the Children of Israel instead of cursing them as he desired, besought him neither to curse them at all nor bless them at all. The history of the years from 1902 to 1911 shows that if we will not direct the course of trade into the channels that make for union, it will flow into those that tend towards separation. Canada's answer to our refusal to consider preferential treatment was the Intermediate Tariff. Negotiations followed for reciprocity between Canada and the United States, but fortunately, owing to the strength of Imperial sentiment in Canada, never bore fruit. At the 1911 Conference Sir W. Laurier claimed that the Colonies ought to be no longer bound by the most favoured nation clauses. The Empire had ceased to be one for treaty-making purposes. The disintegration foreseen by Hofmeyr in 1887 and by Foster in 1894 was beginning to set in. Canada, although we had refused to treat with her, herself refused to treat with the United States. But we cannot expect the Dominions always to refuse advantageous offers. If we will not make commercial treaties with them, there are others who will, and to whom they will turn in time. History shows that commercial union is often the stepping-stone to political union, and the tendency would be for the Dominions to be drawn away from the Mother Country towards those with whom their interests would have become more closely associated. Free Traders say that trade ought to be left alone to flow in its natural channels, but the natural channels for the trade of Britain are those which lead to and from her Colonies, and foreign nations will not let it flow in these; with their retaliatory and prospective tariffs they have sought to dam them up and divert the course of our trade into new channels which they themselves have constructed. Tariff Reformers want us to break down this dam, block up the new channels, and bring the stream back into its original and natural course.

At the two later Conferences, as at the earlier ones, the Dominions remained insensible to the attractions of schemes for political union and for combined action in regard to defence. As a consequence of the war their attitude to these questions may have undergone a change similar to that observable in the attitude of the United Kingdom to the fiscal question.

The *Times* recently gave some extracts from Australian newspapers dealing with questions raised in Mr. Hughes' speeches in this country. Many were suspicious of, some hostile to, the suggestion of political union, but all are not only favourably disposed to but enthusiastically eager for commercial union. These extracts convey the same impression as the history of the Imperial Conferences. It may be that they do not faithfully reflect Australian opinion. At best we cannot be sure of the attitude of the Dominions to political union; of their sentiments regarding commercial union we can entertain no doubt.

Britons are supposed to be very attached to democratic principles, Liberals especially so. The majority of the self-governing States of the Empire have again and again signified their desire for Preference, and their wishes have been as often disregarded by the Liberal Government, whose attitude towards the Oversea parts of the Empire is that of a benevolent despot, who manages everything for his subjects, treating them like children, and their opinions with contemptuous tolerance. But the Dominions deserve something better than this—that their proposals should at least receive fair consideration uninfluenced by political prejudice. Canada and Australia are sending to our aid in the war larger armies than Britain herself has ever put in the field before. They might have stood aloof and done nothing, risked nothing, sacrificed nothing, but made money out of England's troubles and difficulties as the United States has done. In striving to strengthen the Imperial tie they were as eager for our advantage as for their own. For we must either endeavour to strengthen it or resign ourselves to the prospect of its gradual decay and ultimate dissolution. In this matter circumstances will not allow us to stand still; if we do not move forward, we shall go backward in an Imperial sense. Our Empire will enter upon its autumn, when it will shed its Colonies as a tree its leaves, till it is left standing a bare stump in the world's market place, bereft of all its beauty and glory and much of its strength. Its way of life will have "fall'n into the sear, the yellow leaf," and it will cease to be a great and sink to be only a third or fourth rate Power. A modern writer has truly said that the issue really is, "Whether England is to remain a great Imperial Power, with strength to make her influence felt and her will respected in the council of the nations, or whether she is to sink to the level of a political nonentity, her very existence dependent on the sufferance of the great Powers." Recent events in Belgium, Serbia and Montenegro give to these words a terrible significance.

The Imperial Government has not yet given the Australian Premier an answer. Are certain of its members the fit persons

to answer him? Their past record is all against these men, who once boasted that they had banged, barred, and bolted the door in the face of the Colonies, who, whenever the subject of Preference came up for discussion, instantly dismissed it with bitter and contemptuous words. Unless the Free Trade members of the Government themselves confess that they have ceased to hold their former opinions, we must assume that they still think the same, in which case let them say so. But this is what they dare not do in the present state of public opinion. They are between Scylla and Charybdis; if they seek to avoid the rock of Cobdenite anger they run against that of public resentment. They prefer to "wait and see," to bide their time, to defer coming to a decision till the first heat of anger against Germany has somewhat cooled. If they would only say whether they are for or against Preference we should know how to deal with them; but there is danger in their silence and delay. "To pretend otherwise is to throw dust in the eyes of the people," to quote the words of Mr. Hughes, "to play the game of Germany, to prolong the war, to indelibly stamp Britain as a nation of men no longer fit to carry the burden of Empire." These are strong words, but not a whit too strong. Unless we act on them we run a serious risk of being again "too late."

D. A. E. VEAL.

CANADA AND THE CANADIANS

AUSTRALIA is a continent by itself in the midst of the southern oceans, remote from any powerful neighbour. It is the fate of Canada to be placed between the two great English-speaking communities of Great Britain and the United States, and so two strong influences, the one British and the other American, play across the Dominion from end to end. Anyone who would understand Canada must take account of these influences, for by them Canadian life and character are moulded.

The people of Canada are about as numerous as the people of London; but whereas the Londoners are confined within a small and rounded area, the Canadians are strung out in a line some 3,000 miles in length and are pasted like a narrow strip along the northern border of the United States. This means that Canadians are separated from each other by vast distances but are always close to the Americans. For instance, Halifax and St. John are as far from Montreal and Quebec, the nearest Canadian cities of any size, as they are from Boston. From Montreal one can reach Boston and New York in a single night; the journey to Toronto takes about ten hours, and to Winnipeg some forty-eight. If you are in Winnipeg you can reach Chicago in twenty-seven hours, about two-thirds of the time it will take you to get to Toronto or Ottawa, and on the way to Chicago you may pass through such large American cities as St. Paul, Minneapolis or Duluth. In Vancouver or Victoria, Seattle and Spokane are close at hand as compared with even the Western cities of Calgary or Edmonton. American life and Canadian life, therefore, touch each other at a thousand points, and since the United States has a population of a hundred millions and Canada between seven and eight, it is easily seen which has the stronger influence over the other. Hundreds of trains travel to and fro from one country to the other every day. In spite of the preferential duty Canada buys far more from the United States than from Great Britain. The streets of such places as New York, Boston, Detroit, Chicago, Seattle and Spokane are much more familiar to Canadians than the streets of London or Liverpool. And when one remembers that, after all, they are

two peoples of much the same stock settled on opposite sides of an imaginary line, one can understand how it is that in outward appearance the everyday life of Canadians is very much more like that of the Americans than that of the British. Only among the leisured classes do you find a manner of life which is more nearly British than American.

But America counts for more than this. The two peoples applying the same democratic institutions to life on the same Continent, have to face much the same problems—municipal, rural, educational and industrial—as well as problems in transportation. And America, being the older, has to face them first. Consequently, it is of great advantage to Canadians to keep in close touch with American life. The ins and outs of American politics are perhaps better known, and American public men are more often heard and seen in Canada than those of this country. Every movement in the United States finds an echo across the border. Canadian legislation and Canadian commerce have profited greatly from the experience of the United States, and taking things all in all, Canada undoubtedly owes a great deal to her southern neighbour.

And yet at heart Canadians are not in the least like Americans. The latter, though not at present showing up at their best, have many fine qualities, but the Canadians are different. In their outlook on the world Americans are parochial, and their ideal is to sit still and mind their own business. Perhaps because of their keen interest in what goes on both in Great Britain and in the United States, Canadians have a wider outlook and their thoughts are more often abroad. They have an immense admiration for the work the English have done in India, Egypt, and a hundred other places, and they are intensely loyal to the British Empire. To understand this loyalty, one or two points in Canadian history must be clearly grasped.

The immortal Wolfe wrested the control of Canada from the French in 1759; but he did not introduce British settlers save the few soldiers of his army who chose to remain in the country. The first wave of English-speaking colonists did not come till thirty years later, and then it was not from England but from what had been the British plantations on the Atlantic coast. Sooner than live under any other flag, these "United Empire Loyalists" as they are called left their homes and "trekked" northwards to the Canadian wilderness in Ontario, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. What hardships they suffered cannot be told here. But their descendants form the backbone of the old Canadian stock, and their memory is not yet forgotten, nor has their spirit departed.

As time went on settlers came in from England and especially

from Scotland, and many soldiers from the British garrisons remained in the country with their families. Eventually self-government was conferred upon Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario; and by this time a fifth British colony had sprung up on the Pacific Coast, though it had no direct communication with the colonies in the East. Then came a critical moment in Canadian history. In 1865 the Americans struck a severe blow at Canadian prosperity by abrogating the Reciprocity Treaty. Had any one of the separated colonies, despairing of its isolation and tempted by the prospect of finding a large and ready market, gone over to the American union, there could never have been a Dominion of Canada. The loss of any one would have been fatal, and by this time the rest would have been obliged to follow; if one of the maritime Provinces had gone, Canada would not have had her own ports on both oceans; if one of the central Provinces, the country would have been cut in two by a huge slice of American territory.

The one thing which led them all to reject the prospect of immediate gain and to stand by each other was a common loyalty to the British Crown; and out of this, with the generous and wise assistance of British statesmen, the Dominion of Canada was born. Hence loyalty to the Empire is bred in the very bone in Canada. National feeling, it is true, is tremendously strong, so that separated though we are by vast distances from each other, yet, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, a Canadian is always a Canadian and never an American. But it cannot be insisted on too strongly that it is this very nationalism which makes Canadians so intensely loyal to the British Crown. Had it not been for this, the Canadian Provinces would to-day be States of the American Union—a position which, with all its advantages, does not attract us. Were we not British, we could not be ourselves and would have to deny our own history.

And so we look to Great Britain, and to the British Empire as a whole, as being intimately bound up with all our national hopes, ideals and aspirations. As the separated colonies, under the impulse of a common loyalty, came together to form the Dominion of Canada, so it is the hope of Canadians that some day the five nations of the British allegiance will, in that same common loyalty, come together to form one strong united Commonwealth. To achieve this aim no sacrifice would be considered too great. Indeed, the Canadians now in France are not fighting so much for the British isles as for the British Empire; they fight for the British isles as the chief member of the Empire, but they would stand by Australia, New Zealand, or South Africa in exactly the same degree.

HAROLD HAMILTON.

WHO WILL FINANCE THE RAND?

THE greatest gold field on earth; some ninety thousand claims; government property with a probable gold content of seven hundred millions sterling. Added to this, there are private farms contemplated to contain as much again, and gold is wanted by the world of action.

Gold is wanted to build up the shattered and despoiled cities. Gold is wanted to remake roads and railways and to level the broken hills and gaps, and make farms out of chaos and to replant forests. For as furiously as mankind hastens to destruction, so will it hasten actively to remake all that it has destroyed, when the servants of strife have ceased to obey the voice of tyranny.

Outside of this field all gold mines are precarious. This is strata and can be computed. The voice of Labour calls on the Government to work it for the people. Capital demands it shall be thrown to the public—and capital is the public. Viewed from the adjoining mines the strata is rich. The richest piece of gold strata yet discovered and worked. Labour is plentiful, and in normal times costs are low. There are men who aver that it is of importance to the Empire to retain the closest hold on this gold; but it is the Union's principal industry, and it feeds the wants of a country that fails to balance its expenditure by its agricultural and other products, and so gold mining is financing farming, and the inability of the landowner to pay a land tax, and the want of immigrants to work the land, centralises the activities of the Union on to the development of gold mining.

Since the forced retirement of Germans from this forefront, Americans have been much in evidence. The principal mines are engineered and managed by Americans, and there is every sign of their taking a deeper interest in this industry. Americans are buying gold shares to-day, and engineers are reported to be coming to investigate the Rand's possibilities with a view of the investment of American capital. A leading member of one of the Rand's great houses is now in New York negotiating for working capital for his Far East Rand Reefs. Capital is required here

for gold mines, diamond mines, industries, fruit growing and cattle-ranching.

American conditions are nearer akin than European, and successes are already being attained in growing fruit on Californian methods.

Will America step in? Will conditions change if American capital comes in? Will American machinery come with American capital? And if America invades, will the gold output find its way to New York instead of London?

The houses here have limited capital. They cannot get money to-day from Europe. They cannot get sufficient from the public here. The old game of working the public with fictitious prices is dead. The investor demands a fair deal. But capital has to be found, and a new competitor is in the field. South Africa has heretofore relied on London for its financial support, and the houses have nursed this industry from its birth; naturally they do not want an intruder on their preserves. A short while back a prominent member of one of the houses advised the Government to throw the mines open to the public to finance; he was the public.

If American capital comes in, what will the new tune be? Last month one of the houses tried to alter the conditions that it had contracted and carried out the flotation of a great company under, but their proposals were to the country's loss, and the Government rejected the attempt. So the company has to carry out its contract. Now comes the interesting arrangement for developing a mountain of wealth, and when the new buyers appear, the lull in gold speculation may become awakened by the call of Wall instead of Throgmorton street.

For American enterprise may come to the rescue of a land full of promise, but languishing for want of support to develop its great resources, and though sentiment may tie it to old channels, yet its very existence may direct it to accept that support and co-operation that Americans may be willing to advance to-day.

W. P. TAYLOR.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

FEELING that there may be need of the women of Ontario to work on farms, the Women's Emergency Corps of Toronto have asked the Deputy-Minister of Agriculture and Dr. Creelman what, in their opinion, the women could do in agricultural and floricultural work. Replies were received expressing admiration for the spirit displayed by the women. Mr. Roadhouse said the Ontario Department of Agriculture would co-operate in providing courses if there was sufficient demand, and this without a charge. Board and travelling would be the only expenses incurred. He pointed out that if women accustomed to domestic work would do this on the farm they would relieve help that would carry along the outdoor work, such as milking, feeding stock and working in the fields. Light work such as women can do on fruit farms was of shorter duration, and does not require any special training.

ONTARIO manufacturers say that the chief benefit from German and Austrian products being kept at home is not so much that they are barred from Canadian markets as that Canadian manufacturers are now supplying the increased demand in other parts of the world. As an instance, manufacturers of patent leather report that since the outbreak of the war they are selling their goods in Australia, New Zealand and England. Formerly this business was practically all handled by German manufacturers. The manufacturers of drugs and chemicals are also enjoying a business boom by reason of the increased market for their products. Manufacturers of tapestries are replacing Austrian-made goods with Canadian products. Incandescent light bulbs, practically all of which were formerly imported from Austria, are now manufactured in Toronto, where practically all the bulbs used in Canada are made. Electric shades, opal lamp shades, etc., are also being made to supply Canadian demands, and the piano trade, always extensive in Ontario, is busier than ever.

A LINE of steamers owned by the Canadian Government, to be operated from Hudson Bay, will be established on the completion of the railway and terminals at Port Nelson, Canada's new port, and be in operation in time to carry part of the 1917 wheat crop to its destination overseas.

THE erection of the new bridge over the St. Lawrence at Quebec is proceeding satisfactorily. The last connecting link in the north shore

cantilever arm was placed in November, and the whole north side is now completed. The cantilever arm on the south side will be finished by the summer, and it is anticipated that the centre and final span will be placed in position by the autumn, so that trains may be crossing the bridge before next winter. The construction of this bridge demands the greatest engineering skill owing to the swiftness of the current at this point of the river. The bridge will be longer than the Forth Bridge, and will require to be of sufficient height to allow huge steamers to pass under it at all tides.

THE Canadian Commission of Conservation proposes to form a Civic Improvement League, and promises of co-operation have been received from Montreal, Toronto and 400 other cities, towns and villages in Canada, and a large membership is already assured. The general object of the league is to promote the study and advancement of the best principles and methods of civic improvement and development, and to secure a general and effective public interest in all municipal affairs. Although there are a large number of Civic Improvement Leagues in the United States there is no society or league in Canada giving attention to civic problems, and many Canadians interested in municipal affairs have to look to State organisations for guidance and information. It has been considered time for some attempt to be made to study municipal problems from a Canadian standpoint, and the new organisation will no doubt be of great utility in this direction.

"BRITISH COLUMBIA," says a correspondent, writing from Fort Steele, "has done well. Many of the old mines are booming, but I have not heard of any 'Prospects' being advertised in this district. . . . In the great fruit-growing valleys—in the Okanagan particularly—there was an immense harvest. A short time ago I went down to see friends at Okanagan Mission, and I was told in Kelowna on the lake shore that the exports from that wharf alone amounted to £6,000 a day, and I could readily believe it. Prices, too, are good as compared with last year. This is not a fruit region, but is a good mixed farming one, if a man with money would come in and farm. Sheep thrive wonderfully well. Wool and mutton both good. One man here has over 1,000. Dairies, too, with the starting of creameries will do well. Grain yielded well and the ranches are prosperous."

ALTHOUGH the demand for salt fish in Canada remains normally light at this season, there is no inclination on the part of operators to lower prevailing high prices. Indeed it is the general opinion that prices will advance before they are reduced, owing to the present unmistakable tendency towards good business. From the domestic aspect the season has been longer this year than last owing to the late Lent, and the export demand promises well even at this off season.

THE Canadian lumber trade is prospering. Prices have advanced about a dollar a thousand superficial feet and are expected to continue high. This advance is due to the fact that stocks on the prairies are very low, and buyers for prairie lumber yards have been visiting the mills of

British Columbia to carry out orders received from prosperous farmers. War orders for various articles in which wood is used, the shortage of stocks on the coast and the expectation that the big crops of the year will call for large supplies of lumber are also factors which help to maintain increased prices. An interesting feature of the lumber trade is the construction of several saw mills in the interior along the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern Railways. The construction of these lines opens up valuable timber territory.

RETURNS just to hand from Nova Scotia estimate the produce of the province for 1915 at nearly 25 millions sterling, an increase of over £800,000 as compared with 1914. In agriculture, the backbone of all countries, the returns are given as £6,400,000. The most noticeable features were the record crop of hay—the yield being over 30 per cent. more than in 1914—and the very large increase from dairying. The returns from the latter industry show that the output was 34 per cent. over 1914, and no less than 400 per cent. in advance of 1910. The claim, therefore, that Nova Scotia will become a second Denmark appears to be well founded. The quantity of coal mined is practically the same as in the previous year, but the manufacture of iron and steel products has advanced by nearly 50 per cent. There has been an appreciable recovery in gold mining, and it is estimated that the output will show an increase of over one-third as compared with 1914. The exports and imports from the port of Halifax have also gone up, the Customs receipts showing an increase of nearly 20 per cent. in comparison with 1914.

A SETTLEMENT of North American Indians at the Kincolith Reservation on the Naas River, British Columbia, is now working a lumber mill having a production of 12,000 feet per day. The mill is 120 feet in length and is equipped with a 60-horse power boiler and a 40-horse power engine. In addition to the usual number of cross-cutting saws, a planer and edger have been installed, and it is hoped before long that a shingle cutter will be added. In addition to running the mill, the Indians are also operating four logging camps on the reserve, where they are cutting the timber for the mill. The mill was built a few weeks ago at the request of the Indians, out of money held in trust for them by the Dominion Government, and which was obtained by the sale several years ago of a portion of the reserve lands to a mining company. A representative of the Government superintended the erection of the mill and the installation of the machinery. It is expected that a ready market will be found for the lumber.

IN connection with the taking over of the railway to Upper Musquodoboit, Nova Scotia, by the Intercolonial Railway, the report of a committee on railway extension to that part of Nova Scotia, presented at a meeting at Middle Musquodoboit, is of considerable interest. The Intercolonial operation of the road is popular. The rates have been cut in half. The report, after outlining the route proposed at that time, proceeds to speak of the natural resources of the Musquodoboit Valley,

which could be developed by a railway, and points out that the country is not only rich agriculturally, but abounds in valuable minerals. Among the deposits mentioned is one of a superior quality of fire clay, extending over an area of seven miles by four. An important mineral on the route is iron, which, the report says, occurs in the Dean settlement, and it is stated that on one property there are three well-defined leads of red hematite ore from 10 to 12 feet thick. There are also considerable deposits of burnt umber, of which at that time several carloads had been shipped to Montreal and one or two to Halifax. Gold, silver and lead are also to be found in greater or less quantities along the route. The timber limits are extensive and the agricultural lands are described as of surpassing fertility.

MANITOBA bee keepers are offered the free use of a circulating library on bee questions. The library is in charge of the Provincial Apiarist Department of Agriculture, Winnipeg. The demand for literature in connection with bees has been very great recently, which indicates an increased interest, and is reflected in the fact that the honey produced in 1915 was twice the amount produced in 1914.

OWING to the heavy drain upon the live stock of the various warring countries of Europe, these have been forced to go abroad for supplies. The longer the war lasts the greater will be this demand. At present there is an unequal distribution of live stock in Canada. In certain sections there is a heavy surplus, with a corresponding scarcity in other parts. During past years thousands of young cattle from the prairie provinces have gone to the United States. In order to remedy these conditions, the Minister of Agriculture, through the Live Stock Branch, has decided to grant aid to breeders. The conditions under which aid will be given are as follows: In the event of a number of farmers in any district of Canada wishing to co-operate for the purchase of breeding stock in carload lots from some distant section of the country, the department will pay the travelling expenses of their duly appointed representative during the time required to effect the purchase and transport the shipment to its destination. Should it be desired, the Live Stock Commissioner will nominate a suitable person who will be directed to accompany this representative and assist him as far as possible in buying and shipping the animals.

An interesting experiment is to be undertaken by the Department of Agriculture at Buffalo Park, Wainwright, Alberta, which, in the event of its proving successful, will benefit Western Canada considerably from a financial point of view. The department has secured twenty "catalo," that is, hybrid buffalo and cattle, and will carry on experiments with a view to the development of a hardy domestic animal which will have all the advantages of both species. These catalo have been purchased from the herd of the late Mr. Boyd, of Bobcaygeon, Ontario, who started the experiments as long ago as 1894. When he died he was the owner of a considerable herd of hybrids. His experiments, up to the time of his death, had not reached the final stage, and the Government will carry on

his work. It is claimed that the catalo, if successfully bred, will be more hardy than the domestic animal, and, like its progenitor the buffalo, will winter out on the plains, foraging for itself. The experiments have shown that the hide is almost as heavy and valuable as buffalo, which would greatly increase its worth. In addition, it is much heavier than the ordinary range cattle with more meat and very tender. The catalo, if it can be successfully developed, will be of particular value in the agricultural development of the far north of the three prairie provinces.

THE fishing industry of Prince Rupert has had unprecedented prosperity, due in part to the Order-in-Council that the port may handle fish caught by American fishermen. This has brought the northern port into competition with Seattle. Prince Rupert is handling about 1,500,000 pounds of halibut per month. For an "off" year the salmon pack was remarkable; 1,133,381 cases being packed during 1915. The development of the new city on the Pacific has been remarkable and it is as yet of course only in its infancy.

WITH the object of increasing the interest of Canadians in the conservation of forest resources by proper utilisation of the raw materials, a forest product laboratory was recently opened in Montreal under the aegis of the Forestry Branch of the Department of the Interior and the McGill University. The work of the laboratory is to be largely of a chemical, physical and engineering nature, and has to do with the intensive study of wood itself and the many products which can be manufactured therefrom. Investigations have been undertaken with the view of extending the knowledge and improving the methods of using the raw material furnished by Canadian forests and finding ways and means of utilising the vast amount of waste wood which is occasioned in the lumber trade. The laboratory consists of a paper mill, a complete paper-making plant, starting with the logs and ending with all kinds of paper—news, glazed, wrapping, etc.—and a system of machines for testing various woods so as to show their strain-resisting capacity in various ways, with the object of their suitability for mine props. This development is the more particularly interesting in view of the threatened shortage of paper in this country consequent on the action of the Swedish authorities.

SOUTH AFRICA

ON the Port Elizabeth Wool Market recently, 25½*d.* per lb. was paid for a parcel of super snow whites from stud fleeces bred by Sir Thomas Smartt, M.L.A., Glen Ban, Stellenbosch. This is said to be a record price in South Africa.

IN order to relieve the congestion at the ports of the Union, it is announced that the Government have arranged with the Union-Castle Steamship Company for 750 tons of maize to be shipped by each homeward bound mail steamer until further notice.

AMONG the agricultural industries which has benefited by the breaking of the drought is the Natal sugar industry. Small holdings are increasing

apace, and so much impetus has been given by the rains to the growth of the canes that it is even suggested in some quarters that there may be a difficulty in disposing of the crop. This would be unprecedented in the history of the Natal sugar industry.

NEGOTIATIONS are proceeding for the institution of a direct service of passenger steamers between the Union of South Africa and South America after the war. It is said that the new service of steamers will make its terminal port at Iquique, Chile, where vessels will load with nitrate for south and East Africa and India. The return journey will be direct from India to Delagoa Bay and Durban, where cargoes of Transvaal and Natal coal will be loaded. The ships will also take passengers for South America, calling at Cape Town. It is claimed that South America, which in 1914 imported 6,000,000 tons of English and Welsh coal into the Argentine and 3,500,000 tons of English and Australian coal into Chile, is the natural market for South African coal.

THE estimates of expenditure of the South African Railways and Harbours, as laid on the table of the House of Assembly, show that the total estimated expenditure for the financial year ending the 31st March, 1917, is £13,737,027, namely, £12,561,101 for railways, and £1,175,926 for harbours; an increase of £571,553 for railways and £98,516 for harbours on the estimated expenditure for the present financial year. In a memorandum the Minister of Railways points out that the estimates last year were framed on a low basis, whilst these provide for more normal conditions. The proportion of the pay of men during absence on active service borne by the Railways and Harbours Department is £100,831, a decrease of £116,298. The "Summary of Staff" for the railways shows a total personnel of 52,220 against 53,995, and for harbours 3,524. The salaries and wages bill for the railways comes to £6,561,264, of which £850,631 is recoverable from various sources. In the S.W. Protectorate 4,405 men are employed. Of these 3,525 are natives,

At the 31st December, 1915, the Governor-General's Fund, which was raised to assist the dependents of men on service with the South African Forces, had a balance of £264,000 after meeting all claims. The fund was originally raised to meet cases of individual distress, but the scope has now been widened, and a guarantee is now given to pay a minimum allowance of £2 10s. per month to dependents in whose favour Government separation allowance had been secured, provided they are not receiving any allowance from their supporters' employers. During 1915 upwards of 25,000 grants were made, involving an expenditure of £82,000. It was estimated that the expenditure to be met now would amount to £14,000 monthly.

Two prominent agricultural experts in South Africa have recently been on a tour through the Eastern Province of the Cape Province and speak in glowing terms of the prospects of growing fruit in that part of the Union. It is said to surpass the Western Province as a fruit-growing region by reason of the extraordinary range of its products. In

the same orchard, oranges, pineapples and apples were seen growing to perfection, and one expert said he did not think this possible anywhere on the face of the earth. Another point which aroused considerable interest was that oranges could be cultivated in this region entirely without irrigation owing to the good rainfall and the humid atmosphere.

IN his report with regard to the destruction of locusts, the officer responsible states that up to the end of the year it is estimated that 20,000 swarms of these pests were destroyed at a cost of approximately £4,000. By this means, damage amounting to probably half a million sterling was saved at a rate of insurance of less than 1 per cent.

NEW ZEALAND

EXHAUSTIVE trials of New Zealand timbers—mainly from the West coast of the South Island—have recently been made and samples sent out of the Dominion to be tested by experts in Canada and elsewhere. These have satisfactorily proved that New Zealand timbers are eminently fitted for conversion into paper pulp, and then into the paper used for newspapers. A company is now on the eve of flotation which has secured the water rights of a large watershed, as well as many thousands of acres of virgin bush covered with suitable timber, and much is looked for by experts from the new industry.

UP to the end of January New Zealand had, from the present war, 562 pensioners who already draw annually £25,205 in pensions from the State. Some notion of the burden imposed on herself by the Dominion may be gathered from the generosity of the pensions awarded, a private's widow getting £65 a year for herself and £13 for each of her children.

THE military authorities in New Zealand have decided to issue badges not only to those on war service who have enlisted who are waiting to be called up, have been rejected or are engaged on war work, but special ones—scarlet armlets embossed with a yellow crown—to all those honourably discharged from the New Zealand Expeditionary Force.

THE prevailing notion that, as a result of the open-air life of training and in the field, the inclination of former townsmen when they return from the war will be to forswear urban occupations and betake themselves to the country, is not being proved in New Zealand. There, though business-like arrangements have been made to have land ready for them when they return, the disposition of the majority, so far, is found to be towards city jobs.

PRIVATEs who are sent back to New Zealand incapacitated, temporarily or otherwise, are allowed two shillings a day lodging allowance while undergoing medical treatment. The pensions scheme, for the assistance of those either partially or totally disabled, is said to be the most liberal in the world, and every possible assistance is being given to New Zealand soldiers to secure their full return, if possible, to mental and physical health by the establishment of first-class convalescent homes for both officers and men and a number of special up-to-date institutions for neurasthenic cases.

JUST under a million pound's worth of butter was exported from one city of New Zealand alone (Auckland) during the last six months of 1915! Shipments to Vancouver have, for the time being, almost ceased; the consumption in New Zealand has been restricted and some sixty thousand extra boxes been sent to England. The export of cheese has increased enormously, 23,000 crates having been sent to the United Kingdom, as compared with 8,221 crates in the previous season.

EIGHTY-SEVEN thousand acres of land has been definitely set aside in New Zealand for the settlement of New Zealand soldiers, another 400,000 acres being provisionally reserved. About 60,000 acres are situated in Upper Hawkes Bay, the whole of this on the route of the Napier-Gisborne Railway, only four to eight miles from Napier, one of the large flourishing towns on the East Coast of the North Island. It is chiefly open, hilly, pastoral land, mostly in grass, but part scrub and fern—suitable for subdivision into sheep farms, ranging from 500 to a few thousand acres and averaging about a thousand acres each. This is already being prepared for settlement. Another block is situate on the Napier-Wellington Railway, with first-class soil suitable for dairying; this is already surveyed into holdings. Flat rich land has been reserved in the Wellington Province and is available for occupation at once; and in Otago, in the South Island, a fine estate (23,000 acres) of open tussock land suitable for pastoral purposes is being got ready. In addition an estate in the North specially suitable for small holdings, first-rate low-lying land, is being drained. When this is complete another 2,000 acres of very rich land will be available.

IN spite of the fact that the system of compulsory military training has been in practice in New Zealand now for some years the drain made on the military resources of the Dominion by its magnificent offering of men and officers has become very apparent. It is evident the New Zealand officers cannot at once lead their men at the front and remain at home to train new bands of volunteers, and arrangements have now been made in England so that a number of instructors selected from among the many capable men who have seen service but are unable to return to the front will do temporary service in the Dominion. Major Sleeman, of the Royal Sussex Regiment, is now Assistant-Director of Military Training in New Zealand, and a band of other suitable Imperial officers are going out.

AN important legal action affecting tyre importers and exporters and the motor trade generally was recently decided in New Zealand. The suit was brought by the Dunlop Company of Australasia, Ltd., to protect its trading rights in New Zealand. Certain concerns had been importing English made Dunlop tyres into the Dominion without the consent of the Australian Company, which has the sole rights of the benefits accruing from the goodwill and trade marks of the Dunlop tyre in Australasia. The Dunlop Company, in order to protect its interests, took action in the Supreme Court of New Zealand. The result was the issue of a perpetual injunction against the defendants from selling, offering, or

advertising for sale any goods under the name of "Dunlop," other than those made by the Australian Company. The Dunlop Company of Australasia has the sole right of manufacturing and selling Dunlop tyres in Australasia and New Zealand.

IN spite of a long and severe drought, extending over several months, through which she has recently passed, Samoa—the first of the German places in the sun to be added by New Zealand to the British Empire in the war—flourishes exceedingly. So much has the newly established branch of the bank of New Zealand commended itself to the mercantile community that the inhabitants marvel how they conducted their businesses without a financial institution. The local Government and the Courts work very smoothly, and the high prices obtaining for copra keep business in a thoroughly healthy condition.

CROWN COLONIES AND PROTECTORATES

THE delay in the publication of the Colonial Reports is getting worse than ever. The report on Mauritius for 1914 has only just been presented to parliament, although dated June 1915. That in itself is too late a date to be of much use to the traders of the country, but, when the Colonial Office adds a further interval of nine months it seems hardly worth while publishing the report at all. Owing to the war there was a falling off in the trade with foreign countries in 1914, the reductions being noticeable both in imports and exports. The value of the trade with India, however, shows a rise compared with that of the previous year, and the trade with India and the United Kingdom represents more than 85 per cent. of the aggregate export and import trade of the colony, which is very satisfactory in every way. The increase in the export trade with the United Kingdom was due to the purchase by His Majesty's Government of 161,000 tons of crystal sugar.

THE use of motor cars and motor cycles has developed rapidly in the last few years. In 1907, thirteen cars and two cycles were imported, in 1908, six cars and three cycles, while during the last six years three hundred and fifty cars valued at Rs. 1,597,000 and one hundred and five cycles valued at Rs. 77,000 have been imported. The number of motor cars imported in 1914 was fifty-six valued at Rs. 179,000, and of cycles thirty valued at Rs. 27,000.

THE value of land in the Leeward Islands varies in accordance with its suitability for the cultivation of sugar-cane or other products. In Dominica Crown lands can be purchased at 10s. an acre. In Antigua and St. Kitts the value of good cane-growing land varies from £4 to £8 an acre. In Antigua there are over 2,000 acres of Crown land at Piccadilly, Red Hill, and the Ridge, on which there is much valuable timber. In the event of the erection of a sugar factory in that district, favourable sections of these lands will doubtless be taken up for the cultivation of sugar-cane. Sugar is the principal manufacture in the Presidencies of Antigua and St. Kitts-Nevis. In St. Kitts the distilling of rum is of some importance. The staple in Dominica and Montserrat

is lime juice. The production of citrate of lime in these islands is being developed. There is a sulphur mine at Soufriere, in Dominica, but it is not worked at present. Phosphate of lime is found in Barbuda, and phosphate of alumina in Redonda. There is no recognised fishing industry in the colony. Fish are caught for local consumption only, except in the Virgin Islands, whence large quantities are exported to the neighbouring Danish island of St. Thomas.

THE German engineers responsible for building those fine roads in German East Africa little thought that the surfaces they so carefully prepared would provide good going for British motor cars and motor-cycles engaged in the work of driving Germany from the last post in her Colonial Empire. Yet the machine-gun section under General Smuts' command has played an important part in this process of evacuation, and the activity of motor-cycle riders engaged in dispatch-riding is shown by the fact that the Dunlop Rubber Co. (South Africa) has received a further order from the Union Government for 350 pairs of motor-cycle covers.

MORE than any other the Sea Island cotton industry has been adversely affected by the War. The consumption of the yarns spun from lints of this character, lying as it does largely in Belgium and the districts of Northern France at present occupied by the hostile Powers, has fallen practically to zero for the time being, except in so far as sales are effected with a view to increasing spinners' stocks. In these circumstances a very serious blow threatened the prosperity of Montserrat, Nevis, the Virgin Islands, Anguilla and Barbuda, which are dependent on the cultivation of cotton for their staple industry, while at the same time in St. Kitts and Antigua also, where the growth of the crop constitutes a secondary industry of considerable importance, the situation was calculated to give grounds for grave apprehension. Happily the Fine Spinners' Association, acting in co-operation with the British Cotton Growing Association, agreed to purchase the whole of the crop during the season 1915-16 at fixed minimum prices for cotton of satisfactory quality. As the result, the outlook in many of the islands materially improved.

In his report for 1914-15 on British Guiana the Colonial Secretary tells us that the diamond industry was affected in the latter part of the year most adversely by the war, as the European market for diamonds ceased and there was no sale for the stones. The workings in the Mazaruni River had opened very briskly in April and good returns were obtained up to the time the adverse market conditions arose, but thereafter the larger companies operating stopped work. The output, notwithstanding, was 100,522 stones, weighing 13,716½ carats, being an increase of 2,597 carats on the production in 1913-14, and the largest production in one year. The stones average 7.32 to the carat and are an improvement in size on those won the previous year.

NOTWITHSTANDING the distance of Tonga from the centre of conflict, the fact that Great Britain had been compelled to draw the sword and that the Empire was in arms profoundly stirred all classes of the community, and had the immediate effect of overshadowing all events of local

interest. The number of residents in Tonga of both sexes claiming British nationality is estimated to be less than 400, many of whom have never been beyond the limits of the kingdom. These remote islands, nevertheless, have been represented in the rally of Britons overseas to the colours, and those who have responded to the call of patriotism have done so entirely on their own resources. Contributions from those who from a variety of causes have not been able to render personal service are being remitted periodically to the National Relief and other war funds. Both the Tongan Government and the Tongan people—nobles, chiefs, and commoners—have given tangible expression to their loyalty and to their sympathy with those who have suffered distress in consequence of the war by contributing generously to the relief funds.

THE annual report of the colony of Trinidad and Tobago for 1914-15 is another belated document. Its contents is so hopelessly out of date that I must limit my observations to recording the fact that the colony made a grant of £40,000 for the purchase of cocoa for the navy and army, and considerable sums were raised in the colony by private subscription in aid of the various patriotic funds. The colony has also voted the necessary amount to meet the cost of sending a contingent of 400 to 500 men to England.

FROM statistics kept in the Ellice Islands it has been found that the yield of coconuts compares unfavourably with that of other groups in similar latitudes, and it is considered that fertilising should be introduced. For purposes of experimental agriculture Government Reserves are now being started on all the islands of the Gilbert and Ellice groups, and a vote has been approved for the purchase of fertilisers for experimental purposes on these Reserves and to cover the cost of soil analysis. This innovation should receive the active support of the firms interested in the copra trade of these districts. The native landowners have already made crude attempts at fertilising, and would readily purchase manurial preparations after ocular demonstration of the good results to be obtained thereby.

ALTHOUGH the reasonable influences of civilisation upon the native are on the whole excellent, they have the effect of slowly discouraging old native customs. In many cases this is undeniably good, since the old customs were often the enemies of decency, sanitation, and all that contributed to well-being. But the effect has been bad upon native dress, and through that channel upon native stamina. The old method of lubricating the body (bare save for a "riri" or kilt of finely worked leaves) with coconut oil was the best possible protection from chill in this region of sudden rains. The cotton smock for women and the cotton trousers and shirt for men, which in the mind of the people seem now so indispensable to professed Christianity, while reducing the endurance of the skin, render it the more susceptible to the chills which wet clothing engenders. The result is colds, pneumonia, influenza; eventually tuberculosis. The Government is doing what it can by enforcing the use in all gaoles of oil and the "riri," and by encouraging native costume at all public dances.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

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AUSTRALIA AND CONSCRIPTION

ONLY a brief space before the close of the career of one of the three great soldiers produced by Great Britain during the nineteenth century, the warnings he had repeated again and again to his countrymen during the years following his final retirement from active service received full and melancholy justification. Those warnings light-hearted, opportunist politicians, and a pleasure-loving populace, had consistently brushed aside. Compulsory military service was "un-English," although the Militia Ballot Act was still on the Statute Book, and between 1808 and 1815 all Englishmen, except eldest sons, from 18 to 45 years of age were required to serve in arms.

A legal Minister of War actually reduced the strength of the pygmy professional Army maintained by Great Britain, abolished the trained militia, and substituted for that body a force that, it was officially admitted, would need six months after the outbreak of war to perfect its training before it could be considered efficient. The fatuous measure of weakening the artillery branch of the Army was also adopted, in spite of the protests of every soldier of experience. It is difficult to recall these and other similar triumphs of mistaken zeal without feelings of profound indignation. But to sow the *aura popularis* is the time-honoured art of the democratic politician, who leaves to others the reaping of the inevitable whirlwind.

Let me briefly point out the immediate results that in all probability would have followed the adoption of the counsels of the late Nestor of the British Army a year or two before the outbreak of war. Had Great Britain, when that event took place, possessed, as under Lord Roberts' scheme she would have done, a million trained men available for immediate service, unquestion-

ably the advance of the invading German hosts would have been checked long before they reached the Marne, and so vigorous a pursuit would afterwards have been maintained that the enemy would never have had time enough to establish himself in a long line of subterranean and almost impregnable defences extending from the Swiss frontier to the sea. In all probability the French and British Armies would have penetrated into the vitals of Germany by way of Belgium within six months after the first gun was fired. By the early expulsion of the invaders, the people of Belgium and France would have been spared infinite miseries, and Great Britain herself enormous sacrifices.

In the East the 40,000 men for whose transport to the Dardanelles, Mr. Winston Churchill has informed us, the Admiralty had made provision in November 1914, might, with the active support of a fleet at that time, and for long after, secure against submarine attack, have seized by a surprise attack positions which would have placed Constantinople at our mercy, and prevented the later entry of Bulgaria into the war as an ally of Germany. For lack of the comparatively small force this operation would have required many thousands of lives and several valuable ships were afterwards sacrificed in vain. We purchased failure at the price of over a hundred thousand casualties when, by prompt action, success might unquestionably have been bought at less than one quarter of that cost. No further instances to show how dearly neglect of previous preparation has cost Great Britain, and the world in general, need be given. Whether, assuming such preparation to have been made by her beforehand, the war would have occurred at all in itself is doubtful; for the rulers of Germany and Austro-Hungary must, in such case, have perceived the futility of assailing, not two, but three, military powers of the first rank. Certainly the decisive word would then have rested with the nation that not only controlled the sea, but also could hold its own on land.

But, unfortunately, prescience has never been a characteristic of popular governments. These invariably prefer a penny's worth of comfort in the present to a pound's worth of safety in the future. Although the cloud in shape like a mailed fist continued to grow and darken on the eastern horizon, and mutterings of thunder became ever louder, easy-going politicians continued to chatter about universal arbitration and naval holidays. The traveller sauntered along, whistling cheerily until the storm burst, and then rushed off wildly to purchase at an enormous price a coat and umbrella. Meanwhile the plains of Belgium were being deluged with blood, Antwerp fell, and northern France was over-run by the enemy.

What strikes a distant observer as most extraordinary is the attitude still adopted by those political transgressors at home, to whose remissness in the past England owed her comparative impotence as a military Power during the last five months of the year 1914. These gentlemen, so far from donning white sheets by way of penance, have actually not been ashamed in some cases to exult in the fact that the war found England unprepared, inasmuch as such lack of preparation proved clearly that she cherished no aggressive designs against other countries! An ingenious defence truly, and one that proves the incurable nature of the malady from which the modern sentimentalist suffers. A similar process of reasoning would lead us to censure the peaceable householder, who kept a loaded revolver by way of precaution against nocturnal depredations, for meditating burglarious raids on the premises of his neighbours. There are now, happily, clear indications that the British masses at least do not recognise the sinfulness of self-defence; and have tardily, but resolutely, flung aside doctrines which, if further listened to, could only hasten national extinction.

To the great majority of the people of Australia and other British territories the news lately received, that the Home Government has at last, somewhat tardily, decided to bring compulsory measures into operation with a view to filling the ranks of the Army, brought real encouragement. Some, indeed, think that the wholesome principle aptly defined by the late Lord Roberts in the words "Citizenship means soldiership" has not been sufficiently applied. Still, at the worst, half measures in a case like this are better than no measures at all. The formal acceptance by the British Parliament of the principle of compulsory military service is the first step which, as the French proverb tells us, means so much. In itself it is equal to a victory gained in the field, and the vote by which it was ratified has sealed the doom of the Germanic Powers.

Stimulated by this great and encouraging proof of a wholesome change in public sentiment at home the advocates of conscription in Australia are redoubling their efforts to bring about a similar change in their own country. Let it be admitted at once that there, as well as in the other great Dominions, and pre-eminently in the Mother Country herself, so far as a display of patriotic spirit goes, the principle of voluntary military service has done much to justify itself. The response to the call of duty on the part of the youth of the Empire has been magnificent. Never before in modern history probably has so large a proportion of the total population of a country offered itself for armed service as within the space of a few months Great Britain gathered round her standards. Nor in the Dominions did the tocsin sound in vain.

Yet numbers and enthusiasm, we all know, count for but little in modern warfare. Training, organisation, equipment and leadership are the dominant factors; and at Suvla Bay of late the fundamental defects of improvised armies have been made painfully clear, even to the most purblind. The days are past when the peasant, or yeoman, could transform himself into a soldier merely by paying a visit to the nearest churchyard or blacksmith's forge. Yet, judging by the utterances of men holding high and responsible positions in Great Britain on the eve of the outbreak of war, one might suppose that they then held the belief that the bill and the long-bow were still the national weapons of the Englishman. Let us hope that now at least they know better.

The arguments in favour of the compulsory, as opposed to the voluntary system of military service, both on the ground of expediency and that of justice, have so often been stated, and are so unchallengeable, that they scarcely require repetition. Perhaps the very worst effect of allowing eligible men the choice as to whether they serve in arms or not is that naturally those of a superior type, whose loss a country feels most severely, volunteer most readily, while those of an inferior kind hang back. The nation thus gives its best and retains its worst—a way of managing affairs which would scarcely meet with the approval of the eugenist or statesman.

Professor Adkins, in a recent volume of essays,* has rightly emphasised the fact that the call of the country in danger appeals most strongly to men of imaginative minds and adventurous dispositions, while those of a "stockish" type either disregard the summons altogether, or obey it tardily. One would, indeed, like to ask the fanatical upholder of the doctrine of freedom to neglect duty, while idle and dissolute, but robust, young hooligans should be allowed to loaf about streets and public houses, while men of the highest intellectual and moral endowments were shedding their blood to preserve for them the liberty of which they were entirely unworthy? Why should the professional man, the farmer, or the skilled mechanic fight, and the sturdy beggar be permitted to plague with his importunities the families of those to whom he owed his security? Why should those who, for their physical and moral reformation, most need discipline and restraint, be allowed to ruin themselves, and others, by their excesses, when the opportunity was at hand for rendering energies, hitherto misdirected and wasted, beneficial both to themselves and their country?

What would happen to a vessel caught in a storm if it were optional with each member of the crew whether he should go

* "The War; its Origins and Warnings."

aloft or not? The ranks of the Puritan Army in the days of Cromwell were, as a leader-writer in *The Times* has just aptly reminded nonconformist opponents of conscription, largely filled with men who had been compelled to serve; and the greatest general and statesman of the age found that "liberty cannot be saved by liberty." The claim that men should be free from all obligation of defending their own freedom or that of their fellow-citizens is a monstrous outrage on common-sense, and not a single argument worthy of respect has yet been adduced in favour of it. If conceded, it would afford a despicable refuge for the timorous and the unworthy, while exposing to the dangers of war only those on whose services a nation relied for its greatness and prosperity.

In the Commonwealth, as elsewhere, a perception of the utter hollowness of the contentions of the anti-conscription orators and publicists is rapidly extending. By undertaking to furnish a new army, 50,000 strong, before next June, besides reinforcements slightly exceeding 16,000 men each month, the Federal Government has virtually accepted the principle of compulsion. It is most improbable that, in addition to the 150,000 men already raised, Australia will be able to provide another 150,000 by the middle of this year without rendering enlistment obligatory. And hints have been given both by the present High Commissioner for the Commonwealth of Australia in London and by the Minister of Defence that even a larger number of men than that already promised will be supplied by the Commonwealth, should more be required. It may be assumed, therefore, that altogether before the close of the war from 325,000 to 350,000 Australian soldiers will have been raised and sent to the front.

In spite of the undoubted patriotic spirit prevailing it is difficult to believe that in a country containing altogether barely 5,000,000 inhabitants so large a proportion as seven per cent. of its entire population can be induced to volunteer for active service in a field of war many thousands of miles distant. It is true, of course, that Great Britain has raised this proportion of volunteers, but it must be remembered that much of the region where the French and British armies have long been facing the enemy lies within fifty miles of the British shores, and consequently the public sense of the national danger, accentuated by episodes such as Zeppelin raids and coastal bombardments, is much more acute in England than it can be in Australia. In the latter country, so far at all events, no trace of any apprehension of real peril is yet visible; and the person who predicted an armed invasion of Commonwealth territory would be regarded as an alarmist of hopelessly deranged intellect.

Without indulging in those effusions of praise which are really insults to brave and patriotic men, it may with truth be affirmed that Australia has reason to be proud of the fine spirit displayed by her manhood ever since Teutonic ambition plunged the world in war. Two out of multitudes of instances of self-abnegation at the call of duty deserve special notice. Some months ago Mr. Stanniforth Smith, lately the Commonwealth Administrator of Papua, relinquished the important and lucrative position he held in order to join the fighting ranks. Soon afterwards Mr. C. Carmichael, formerly Minister of Education in New South Wales, was offered by the State Ministry the attractive post of Commissioner for Irrigation, to which was attached a salary of £1,250 a year, and the free use of an official residence. After consideration the offer was declined, the ex-Minister declaring his intention also of enlisting as a private to serve at the front. Examples such as these are inspiring, and there have been thousands of others of almost equal merit besides.

Positions of luxury and emolument have been freely surrendered by the comparatively wealthy, and the Australian working-man has done his share also. Of the 80,000 members of the Australian Workers' Union, for instance, no fewer than 20,000 had enlisted several months ago. Lawyers, merchants, landowners, clergymen, civil servants, farmers, pastoralists, artisans and coal lumpers have all joined the democracy in arms. Consequently the contrast between the German and the Australian army has become most striking. In the former, as in France, during the old Bourbon *régime*, every officer holding a commission must be a member of the hereditary noblesse. In the latter privates and non-commissioned officers may be found taking their orders with perfect equanimity from men who, in private life, had been their own employees. The moral discipline attendant on this temporary inversion of social relations must have excellent effects on both sides. Comradeship in arms should do more to allay those class jealousies which have disturbed the general tranquillity in Great Britain and Australia so grievously for years past than a thousand homilies delivered by political or clerical moralists. In every way the returned soldier will be a better man and a better citizen for the trials he has undergone.

But it is undeniable that in the Commonwealth, as in Great Britain, the essential vice of the voluntary system has revealed itself. The residuum of the selfish, the timid, the sluggish, and the unpatriotic, who refuse to volunteer, is by no means inconsiderable. Thousands of vigorous young men still throng the race-courses and other pleasure resorts in the Commonwealth,

apparently without any feeling of shame. In the large cities particularly the proportion of eligible men who have not yet enlisted, and who apparently have no intention of offering themselves voluntarily, is very considerable. Probably the great majority of these are neither cowardly nor disloyal. Some, of course, have entirely honourable reasons for not enlisting, and deserve sympathy rather than censure for the disabilities they suffer from. But the predominant feeling among the abstainers seems to be that all should go or none. It is not unnaturally considered that the Government should require equality of sacrifice, and not allow each man to decide whether to risk his life or not. The point of view taken is certainly not a very elevated one, yet it does not lack the elements of reason. And men in this wavering frame of mind are peculiarly liable to fall under the pernicious influence of a small but active class of persons in the Commonwealth, who openly counsel abstention from enlistment. Of the forces constituting the party strongly adverse to conscription, or indeed military service of any kind, a few words may now be said.

Conscription, fortunately, has not been degraded into a party question in Australia. There, as in Great Britain, it numbers among its strong advocates men of all political views and of all conditions in life. While pacifist sentimentalists and members of certain religious denominations offer rather hesitating protests against legislation sanctioning compulsory military service, the most strenuous and effective opposition comes from the officials of the trade unions. The attitude of the rank and file of these bodies is, in the main, passive. Certainly no proofs have yet been afforded that Australian trade-unionists, as a body, object to conscription. But their leaders, professing to speak in their name, denounce the proposed change in unmeasured terms; and unfortunately their control of the party machine enables them to apply political pressure of a most pernicious kind. They also "tune" the section of the Press subject to their malign influence.

But a short time ago one of their chief organs, the *Labour Call*, a Melbourne journal of wide circulation, published an appeal to the class bearing the rather misleading designation of "workers," urging them not to fight for a "system" prejudicial to their supposed interests. Presumably a "system" controlled by Prussian junkers and bureaucrats would be more desirable in the opinion of the managers of this enlightened journal. Again and again trade unionists are told that the conscription of wealth should precede the conscription of manhood. This absurd piece of clap-trap is regarded as constituting a most effective argument. At one labour gathering the Government was solemnly invited to declare £300 a year the maximum amount of income anyone

should be allowed to enjoy during the war, and to confiscate the entire surplus for uses of State. As the adoption of this heroic measure of vicarious sacrifice would impose serious financial burdens on Ministers of the Crown and Members of Parliament, as well as on the professional disciples of Mammon, it is scarcely likely to be carried into effect.

For sheer impudence, however, a resolution carried at a meeting of the Political Labour Council held a short time ago at the Melbourne Trades Hall bears the palm. Shortly before the meeting the Federal Government had distributed cards among all those men of military age in the Commonwealth who had not at that time enlisted, asking each whether he was willing to serve, and, if not, to state his reasons to the contrary. Replies were declared to be compulsory. Nevertheless a member of the small body of professional agitators just referred to, an individual by the way bearing a distinctly non-British name, moved a resolution to the effect that all trade-unionists should be invited to ignore the cards altogether, and his colleagues concurred in this act of deliberate defiance directed against the Government. The latter, unfortunately, refrained from using its powers under The War Precautions Act to deal with the offenders, but it is satisfactory to be able to record that the originator of the mischievous resolution met with at least a portion of his deserts. Soon after the resolution was carried he received an unwelcome visit from fifty soldiers in uniform, and was subjected to a severe cross-examination. At the conclusion of the interview he fled, attired like a black-bird, down the street; and this rough administration of martial law has certainly met with general approval. One might wish, however, that, in a more regular form, it could have been extended to the authors of recent disgraceful proceedings at Broken Hill, where, in breach of an award of the Arbitration Court, the miners struck for an extra half holiday a week, and actually were permitted by the Government to picket the munition works, and prevent the manufacture of shells and other indispensable military requirements. A battalion of Anzac veterans sent there under a resolute commander endowed with full powers would have taught these mutineers a much-needed lesson. There is some reason to suspect that in Australia, as in America, secret enemy influences have been employed to foment internal disturbances of an embarrassing kind. Military riots that have lately occurred at one or two training camps may possibly have been instigated in the same way. If so, the sooner the secret agents of mischief be detected and introduced to the firing party the better for the Commonwealth and the Empire.

It were unfair, of course, to ascribe seditious or disloyal

motives to any but a quite negligible fraction of the opponents of conscription in Australia. But it is hard to acquit a considerable number of them of selfish motives. Proofs have too often been given that, to the average trade union official, his union comes first and his country second. A national army he considers necessary only as an instrument for safeguarding the political and industrial system under which his caste enjoys exceptional privileges. He knows that alien rulers would scarcely tolerate the limitation to a single favoured section of workers of opportunities of employment which should be open to all. He approves, therefore, of the State maintaining a garrison sufficient for the protection of his own pocket borough. But, with some reasons, looking at the matter from his point of view, he detests the idea of universal military service.

Subjection to military discipline might have the inconvenient effect of weakening the bonds of industrial discipline among the workers. M. Briand in France but a year or two ago demonstrated very clearly the fact that, if compelled to choose between the two, the worker preferred to obey the order of his military chiefs rather than those of the leaders of his union. The unionist soldier, after a term of close association and comradeship-in-arms with men not belonging to any union, might even acquire towards those he had been taught to regard as foes feelings of respect and goodwill, which would be decidedly disadvantageous to the interests of the official hierarchy that now thrives by the judicious exercise, in the sphere of industry, of the cynical old maxim *divide et impera*. Moreover, inconvenient comparisons might be drawn between the conduct of the former employer, bravely fighting as a volunteer in the ranks, and that of the union official who, until forced to serve, was content to live comfortably at home on a salary drawn from the earnings of the workers.

Lastly, under conscription, many trade union officials would be compelled to give up very desirable positions, which might be filled by older men during their absence. It is an unfortunate fact that very few indeed of the members of the class now referred to have enlisted for active service, and some, as before shown, have done their best to hinder the recruiting movement. To these backsliders the Prime Minister, by far the ablest and most enlightened representative of Australian trade unionism, has set an inspiring example. One might wish that the agitators, through whose malign influences no fewer than three hundred and eight strikes were incited in New South Wales alone last year, forty-five taking place in the single month of November, could be shamed into a sense of public duty. In the great majority of cases these disturbances arose through demands for

increased wages based on increased costs of living. The malcontents seem to have thought it quite proper that they should be indemnified against all privations due to the war at the expense of others who already had to put up with the same trials.

Equality of sacrifice is a doctrine entirely repudiated by the leaders of many industrial organisations in Australia, and provided a certain number of miners, say, are gratified with an extra shilling apiece a day, they are quite willing that widows and orphans should be deprived of the scanty pittance in the way of dividends on which they had previously depended for subsistence. It is nauseating in times like these to hear of demands being made for war bonuses. Those vampires, whether employers or employees, who seek to prey on their bleeding country should be dealt with as traitors. We read of large numbers of the women of Germany offering their rings as contributions towards meeting the costs of war. That is the true patriotic spirit, and one worthy of imitation by all British citizens.

A very brief summary has been given of the arguments in favour of conscription based on justice and sound policy. The financial aspect of the question now demands consideration. War, we all know, is an extremely expensive business. How to reconcile economy with efficiency is the great problem to which all prudent and patriotic rulers of countries involved in hostilities have to apply their minds. The services of a Louvois and a Colbert to the generals in the field are incalculable, and even a Nelson could achieve little without a Jervis and Pitt behind him. Obviously the remuneration of the soldier affects very materially the cost of carrying on military operations; and if he be paid at an extravagant rate, the financial staying powers of the nation that supports him must be gravely impaired.

Looking at this somewhat delicate matter in an impartial light, it is hard to find justification for the extremely lavish scale of military pay adopted by the Commonwealth Government in office on the outbreak of war. One cannot help thinking that the acceptance of the principle that the soldier should receive while serving a daily allowance at least equal to the amount he had been accustomed to earn in private employment was entirely unsound. For service in arms, when the safety of the nation is imperilled, is to those physically efficient a clear obligation. The young and healthy citizen fights, while the old and the infirm pay taxes in substitution for personal service. To treat patriots as hirelings seems but a poor way of showing them honour. In accordance with the rule laid down the minimum wage of the Australian private soldier was fixed at 6s. a day, an additional daily allowance of 1s. 5d. for the wife, and 4½d. for each child,

being granted to married men. Sergeants receive 10s. 6d. and lieutenants 21s. each per diem, and so on, on an upward scale. One chaplain at least now enjoys the generous salary of £900 a year. Most liberal provision is promised in the event of death or disablement, the minimum pension being fixed at £52 per annum, with £13 in addition for each child under sixteen. Just now, a Minister has informed us, each Australian soldier engaged in active service costs his country on the average £200 a year. Considering that in addition to his pay he receives free food, lodging, clothing, equipment and medical attendance, and is also exempted from the necessity of making provision for his dependants, the pay of the soldier is really considerably higher than that of the ordinary manual worker in Australia.

Naturally inducements so tempting have had the evil effect of attracting many men of thoroughly bad moral character to the various training camps in Australia, and the presence of these reprobates has caused the military authorities much trouble. No small number are known to have deserted and re-enlisted several times, their practice being to enjoy the hospitality of each camp in turn until the eve of the day fixed for departure for the front, and then to disappear with the substantial sums drawn while training. Thus besides the pecuniary loss, the moral and discipline of the troops assembled in the camps have suffered through the bad example set by men who would never have infected such places if temptations had not been offered to their greed. And what must be the feelings of the trained British soldier drawing his meagre daily allowance of about 1s. 2d. when he sees his comparatively raw colonial comrade receiving just five times that amount? It were a base slander to affirm that Australians would not fight save as highly paid mercenaries for the Empire, whose security and honour are as dear to them as they are to Englishmen; and there is no reason whatever to believe that, should the Government, on the introduction of conscription, adopt the wise course of reducing very substantially the excessive rates of pay hitherto prevailing, there would be any serious opposition. Ulterior benefits might, for the time at least, remain unaltered. All possible consideration for the comfort and well-being of the soldier, honour for his achievements, and security for his dependants would more than make amends for the slight pecuniary sacrifice each man would be required to make for the good of his country.

To those who repeat the fallacious old saying which ascribes to one volunteer the martial virtues of three "pressed" soldiers, we may recommend a study of the achievements of the men who stormed Erzeroum, and those who defended Verdun. Cromwell's "pressed" men were not altogether poltroons. If freedom to evade the duty of defending freedom be one of the inalienable rights of

free men, a country that calls itself free is likely to have a very short life, if a merry one. Those who are content that the brave and the good alone should lay down their lives for their country, while the selfish, the timorous and the base hide behind the corpses of their nobler fellow-citizens, must account to posterity for the part they passively took in destroying the virility and moral fibre of the race. And what about the Government that has hitherto accepted false standards of freedom and civic responsibility?

"Public life," wrote Burke in his 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents,' "is a situation of power and energy; he trespasses against his duty who sleeps upon his watch as well as he that goes over to the enemy." Unhappily in regard to the vital question of compulsory military service, the Federal Government of Australia still "sleeps upon its watch." A more vigorous display of "power and energy" is needed. Persons who deliberately and from base motives impede the working of the military machine should be dealt with as traitors. Those who, without sufficient reason, refuse voluntarily to assist their country in the day of need must be driven into the ranks. The wretched policy of coaxing and bribing men to do their duty must be abandoned. It were far better that the task of placing the fabric of organised national defence on a sound basis should be undertaken at a time when the public mind is resolute but tranquil, than when perhaps it might be maddened by panic or disaster. For it is the curse of democracies as well as of kings

"to be attended

By slaves that take their humours for a warrant,"

and popular frenzy has never lacked agents of mischief. In the Commonwealth the great reform now urged is seriously opposed only by political trade unionism. Some day Australia will cast that viper out of her bosom. The abuse of political power by industrial organisations pursuing selfish aims by predatory methods will cease when all classes are merged in that noblest of all unions, a nation in arms. Not merely for the additional security against external peril that the adoption of conscription would mean to Australia, but for the internal tranquillity it would help to secure, is the change to be recommended. Let us hope the present auspicious moment will not be allowed to pass, and that the principle of compulsory military service already accepted in regard to coming generations of Australian citizens will soon be applied also to all capable representatives of the present generation.

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

THE COMMERCIAL WAR

ITS FINANCIAL ASPECT

I

THERE is a piquant contrast between the German and British banking systems, particularly with regard to the capitalisation of industrial and trading enterprises. The latter is dignified, cautious, safe, and in a word patrician. The former is bustling, bold to temerity, not always sound, in fact *parvenu*. There are merits and defects on both sides. The British system has undoubtedly abstained from financing enterprise on behalf of our manufactures, as well as of our home retail and our wholesale export trades. It has, however, kept us free from dangerous trade crises. The German banks, on the other hand, have been very largely responsible for their country's rise to industrial eminence. In Germany the bank is the very heart of the industrial circulation. So much is this the case that the German banker has not only lent money to industrial concerns, but has actually accepted a quasi-directorship in them, becoming in many cases paid financial adviser to concerns in which his bank has a pecuniary interest. There is a case mentioned by M. Millioud, of one man, a heavy pluralist, who held forty-four such positions! Thus the German banks have completely identified themselves with the industrial movement.

One result of such identity has been the rapid growth of the Cartel system. This was inevitable since a financial magnate might acquire an interest in a number of competing firms. He would then wish to allay the intensity of competition and so cut down expenses and add to the soundness of his security. A combination was soon effected, which settled uniform prices at home and abroad, arranged for conjoint representation and advertising, and generally pooled all expenses which were in any way common to the united undertakings. Such combinations backed up by the great banks, including the Deutsche Bank, had command of vast capital. It was the firm support of the Deutsche Bank which rendered possible the rapid rise of

Germany's electrical industry. It is certain that the banks having such heavy investments on the security of industrial undertakings must greedily foster any invention which promises returns, and must assist to the limit of their powers—and even beyond—all extensions whether of output or market.

The system thus outlined has played a very useful part in building up the German industries. Had any man a workable idea he was certain to find financial backing. Was there a new market to be exploited the capital was readily forthcoming for inquiry, for experiment, and for production. And here let me enter a protest against that development of the British outlook on things German which affects to have discovered a lack of originality, of inventiveness, in our enemies. Let us rather recognise that not only in research but also in adaptiveness the German technologist is at least our equal. The fact that since the outbreak of hostilities between four and five hundred applications have been made to the Patent Office, for the avoidance or suspension of enemy-owned patents, is proof sufficient that we have found it necessary to avail ourselves of German inventiveness. Is not an important part of our munition supply dependent on a Krupp patent? Do not the same firm own the master patent for magnetic separators? We must acknowledge that Germany's way of doing things has encouraged the inventor. Can we say as much for ourselves? I doubt it.

The German system is not faultless. It has several well marked defects. One is that the banks were continually tempted to cross the line separating sound from unsound banking. Their methods worked admirably on a flood tide of success, but were ill-adapted to stand any strain. Instead of holding liquid securities, having a definitely quoted Stock Exchange price and so being readily realisable, they were committed as active partners to gigantic enterprises, which required ever growing amounts of capital. The issues made by the banks represented many times the subscribed share stock of these banks, and indeed were in excess of the amount of deposits they held. To cover themselves the shares of the industrial companies in which the banks were concerned were offered in amounts greater than the investing public could take up. Thus much of the nominal security held by the banks, even when on paper it consisted of shares, had no real capital behind it, and the only way the bank could reimburse itself was by steadily unloading these heavily watered stocks on the public, as occasion might offer. It is quite clear that any hint of a crisis, and incipient "run," would at once bring down with a crash the whole fabric of German banking.

Two expedients have been adopted to stave off the crises which from time to time have impended. The first has been, in homely language, to throw the handle after the axe, i.e. to go on increasing production so as to have vast stocks of goods ready in advance of any possible market. By a device familiar to all auditors these stocks figured in balance-sheets, at their full value, as reserves, thus allaying panic and stimulating confidence in the public mind as to the stability of the financial and industrial system. *Germany still holds, and has during the war added to, these stocks*, which are ready to be dumped on foreign markets the moment peace is declared and bottoms are available for their transport. Even in peace the impulse was to realise at any sacrifice in order to find money for fresh undertakings. The second expedient was to invoke the protection of the State. The Reichsbank itself is concerned since it is the final source of the issues of capital, and discounts when necessary the paper floated by all the other great banks. But the Reichsbank must, nominally at least, cover itself, and this is done by the issue of stock in the various Government loans, which taken up by the public are again pledged and actually held as part of its gold reserve, by the State bank. The inevitable consequence follows that the State adds its weight to the force driving industry to seek new markets. Thus on the commercial motive is superimposed the political, and the policy of the All-Highest is irresistibly influenced by the financial and commercial needs of the moment. The need for markets has become not only a commercial but an Imperial concern. The inverted pyramid of German finance rests at its downward pointing apex on the Kaiser's eagle-crowned helmet.

That pyramid was tottering, since the rapid production of the last ten years had exhausted all Germany's money, and even the balloons of her artificial credit could no longer be satisfactorily inflated. The first shock to her financial self-esteem came over the Baghdad railway, which, unable to finance from German sources, she complacently arranged should be engineered and managed by herself whilst the simple *Entente* Powers found the necessary capital. Unfortunately this part of the scheme fell through and the money was not forthcoming. The position went from bad to worse, till the only hope lay in possible indemnities after a rapid and successful war. Most emphatically must we avoid Germany's mistaken exaggeration of the possibilities of financing commerce. Yet there are certain defects in our banking system, and also possibilities which must be enhanced.

The quarter century which has witnessed the phenomenal rise of Germany to an ostensibly commanding position in the world of industry and commerce has also seen a revolution in the

style of the British bank. It is not necessary to go deeply into the history of banking to realise that originally banking business was subsidiary to other commercial enterprises. Such banks as the British Linen Bank carry in their names, and until quite recently in their forms and style, obvious traces of their ancillary origin. In our Eastern possessions banking is still carried on as a "side-line" by merchants and agents. Such well-known firms as Binny of Madras; Balmer, Lawrie of Calcutta—merchants and shipping agents; or Thacker, Spink of Calcutta—booksellers and publishers, still have banking businesses as part of their operations. By far the larger proportion of our banks up to the close of the third quarter of last century were private concerns of purely local character and importance. Such names as Mortlock, Foster, and Round are still household words among "county" people, yeomen farmers, and the tradesmen of our county towns, though the institutions represented by those names have long since disappeared. These old-fashioned private banks had many merits. Their proprietors were racy of the soil, their forebears had lived in the place for generations. They understood local needs, local idiosyncrasies, and local inhabitants. They were the prop and stay of the farmer and the local tradesman or manufacturer. With them character and standing were often a better passport to an advance or an overdraft than more tangible security. They had a keen living interest in all around them, and were on terms of nicely graded familiarity with all classes. A very truthful picture of the old style private banker is given in Besant and Rice's 'Ready Money Mortiboy,' which reproduces the very atmosphere in which he lived. Thus the local banker was an integral part of the place and its society. He was a central figure in all its affairs and a fount of inspiration for that local patriotism which is the foundation of a wider national feeling.

He had his defects. He was not as a rule scientific. He was unable to theorise on credit, the gold reserve, or the foreign exchanges. His methods were rule of thumb. He was sometimes what Sam Weller would have called a "werry harbitrary old gent." He had his prejudices, and in his business transactions was sometimes actuated by party feeling, personal predilection, or social influence. Though often a man of considerable private fortune his bank had no definite or easily ascertainable reserves, and was apt to be overwhelmed in any local or national crisis, to the ruin of his depositors. He was not compelled by law to publish a balance-sheet, and the instances were very rare in which he did so. Indeed it would have been difficult for him to disentangle his private fortune and income from the capital and revenue of his bank. His personal reputation and influence were

often a more valuable asset to him than the gold in his coffers or the securities in his safe.

There is no doubt that such failures as the Overend and Gurney suspension at the end of the seventh decade of last century did much to shake public confidence in the private bank, and gradually as the legislation establishing limited liability produced its effect the joint-stock bank began to prevail over its older competitor, till at the close of the last century there were very few private banks still in existence. The present century has seen an even more rapid advance in the elimination of private banking enterprise, together with an increasing tendency to the combination of existing joint-stock banks into huge concerns.

At the present moment—excluding the Bank of England, which in addition to its functions as an ordinary joint-stock bank has certain definite relations to the Imperial Exchequer and the national currency—very nearly all British banking is done by large joint-stock banks. Half a century ago there were one hundred and twenty joint-stock banks of varying size, and nearly three hundred private firms. Now, if we take such an easily accessible book of reference as Whitaker's Almanack, we find a list of some thirty English joint-stock banks. Of private banks scarcely any remain. There are now only some seven of any real importance. In another way too there is evidence of the passing of power from the provincial banks. Fifty years ago there were one hundred and eighty-eight provincial banks issuing their own notes and having notes actually in circulation to the amount of £5,000,000. Now there are only ten with a total note circulation of £120,000. If we take a fairly recent statement of the Bank of England, we find that on a given date last autumn that institution had notes issued to the amount of approximately £80,000,000. All this points to the concentration of banking direction in London, and as a matter of fact there are only left now thirteen provincial joint-stock banks (leaving out the United Counties Bank) whose operations are not directed from the metropolis. It is true that these number nearly half the total joint-stock banks, but their paid-up capital is under £9,000,000, or an average of about £700,000, while the fifteen banks having their head offices in London, averaging £2,500,000, have a total paid-up capital of over £37,000,000. The subscribed capital is, respectively, £38,000,000 and £179,000,000, giving averages of £3,200,000 and £12,000,000. The customers' current and deposit accounts amount to £122,500,000 for twelve provincial banks, and £835,000,000 for fifteen London banks.

This difference between subscribed and paid-up capital represents a real reserve upon which the bank can draw whenever

necessary. Thus, to take the London City & Midland Bank, its shares are of the nominal value of £12 each, on which the holder of the share has paid only £2 10s. There is thus a balance of £9 10s. which the shareholder is bound to pay when called upon. In some cases this uncalled-up capital is in two categories, that which can be demanded at will, or at short notice, by the bank, and that which can only be called up in the case of liquidation. For instance, the shares of the London County & Westminster Bank are of the nominal value of £20, of which only £5 has been paid up. Of the remainder—£15—£5 may be called up at any time at the discretion of the directors, whilst the £10 will only be demanded should the bank be wound up. There is thus a hidden reserve of £7,000,000 which the shareholders would have to produce for the benefit of the depositors and other creditors of the bank should it—an extremely improbable contingency—actually suspend payment. This sum is perfectly definite and ascertainable by any customer of the bank, and a joint-stock bank therein differs markedly from the old-style private bank. The figures given demonstrate the overwhelming superiority in size of the London-directed banks. That is to say, of the total nominal capital only 17·5 per cent. is represented by the subscribed capital of the twelve provincial banks; whilst of money in the form of deposit and current accounts belonging to customers not more than 15 per cent. is with banks having their head offices in provincial towns. Or again, in the case of the London banks the unpaid capital is equal to about one-sixth of the customers' deposits. For the provincial banks the proportion is one-quarter.

The twelve provincial banks have their headquarters in seven towns, the total population of which is about 2,750,000, and the rateable value about £15,500,000. The two cities and twenty-seven boroughs of London have a population of roughly 4,500,000, and a rateable value of approximately £44,000,000. If we take population as an indication of the importance of the place of direction of the banks, we find that while the subscribed capital in the case of the fifteen London banks is between five and six times as great as that of the provincial banks the population is only as five to three. If we take the customers' deposits and the rateable value we find that London's rateable value is very nearly three times that of the seven provincial towns, while the amount of customers' deposits is approximately seven times as much as that of the provincial banks.

The Commercial War

211

A. BANKS MANAGED IN LONDON.

Name of Bank.	CAPITAL.		Customers' Deposits, etc.
	Subscribed.	Paid up.	
	£	£	£
1. Barclay's	9,000,000	3,600,000	73,000,000
2. Capital & Counties	8,750,000	1,750,000	46,000,000
3. Glyn, Mills, Currie & Co.*	1,000,000	1,000,000	17,000,000
4. Lloyd's	31,000,000	5,000,000	130,000,000
5. London City & Midland	23,000,000	4,780,000	148,000,000
6. London County & Westminster	14,000,000	3,500,000	107,000,000
7. London Joint Stock	20,000,000	3,000,000	44,000,000
8. London & Provincial	2,000,000	1,000,000	24,000,000
9. London & South Western	3,000,000	1,200,000	24,000,000
10. Martin's	1,000,000	500,000	4,000,000
11. National	7,500,000	1,500,000	17,000,000
12. National Provincial	16,000,000	3,000,000	81,000,000
13. Parr's	12,000,000	2,500,000	54,000,000
14. Union of London & Smiths	23,000,000	3,500,000	46,000,000
15. Williams Deacon's	8,000,000	1,250,000	20,000,000
	179,250,000	37,080,000	835,000,000
Average	11,950,000	2,472,000	55,666,666
Say	12,000,000	2,500,000	55,500,000

* This is a private company, not a limited joint-stock concern.

B. PROVINCIAL BANKS.

Name of Bank.	CAPITAL.		Customers' Deposits, etc.
	Subscribed.	Paid up.	
	£	£	£
1. Bank of Liverpool	13,900,000	1,734,000	32,000,000
2. Bradford District Bank	860,000	344,000	7,000,000
3. Halifax Commercial Banking Co.	400,000	200,000	2,000,000
4. Lancashire & Yorks. Bank	1,725,000	863,000	13,000,000
5. Manchester & County Bank	5,500,000	1,100,000	12,000,000
6. Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Co.	9,500,000	1,900,000	29,000,000
7. Northamptonshire Union Bank	1,080,000	396,000	4,000,000
8. Nottingham & Notts. Banking Co.	1,440,000	360,000	4,500,000
9. Palatine Bank	500,000	112,500	340,000
10. Sheffield Banking Co.	1,154,000	404,000	4,000,000
11. Union Bank of Manchester	1,250,000	550,000	7,000,000
12. West Yorkshire Bank	1,000,000	400,000	7,600,000
	38,309,000	8,363,500	122,440,000
Average	3,192,416	696,958	10,203,833
Say	3,200,000	700,000	10,000,000
A. Bank of Whitehaven	295,600	98,500	
(Now with Manchester & Liverpool Bank).			
B. United Counties Bank	6,000,000	1,200,000	7,600,000
(Now working with Barclay's).			

N.B.—The amounts in the above statements are given in round numbers only.

The tables given above exhibit these figures, and the conclusion is irresistible that the direction and management of the finance of the United Kingdom are largely and increasingly in the hands of boards of directors sitting in London. One unfortunate result of this has been to drain a very large amount of provincial deposits to London, there to be used in financing not only large companies having their headquarters in the Capital, but also foreign schemes, and international and quasi-British jobbing and exchange and broking houses. The securities held in consequence of this policy were doubtless reasonably liquid during peace, but are not some of them, even where not heavily depreciated or even worthless after war has been declared, only negotiable with difficulty under war conditions? The holding of outside *indicia* of values is not as serviceable to Britain's trade as investment in our own concerns—where that is possible and safe, and the provinces have some reason to complain that they have seen their own funds diverted from their own needs.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

(*To be continued.*)

NEW ZEALAND'S EXPORT TRADE

THE Prime Minister of New Zealand announced recently that the exports from the Dominion will probably constitute a record this year. In 1915 their value amounted to £32,000,000, exceeding by £5,500,000 that of the previous year. A large proportion of the exports are the product of the soil. The most valuable cargoes that have ever left the Dominion were sent over to "The Old Country" during the early months of this year, and this in spite of the restrictions on shipping. No country in the world approaches New Zealand in its export trade per head of population. The following table gives the external trade of the principal shipping countries, calculated per head of population :—

Country.	Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
		£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
New Zealand	1915	27 6	18 13	45 19
United Kingdom	1915	10 10	18 11	29 1
Australia	1915	14 2	14 19	29 1
Canada	1914	12 7	16 15	29 3
United States	1915	5 10	3 7	8 17
Belgium	1913	19 0	24 7	43 8
France	1913	6 19	8 12	15 11
Germany	1913	7 6	7 14	15 0
Argentina	1914	9 16	7 7	17 3

SHAKESPEARE'S PATRIOTISM

THE war, while robbing the Shakespeare tercentenary of some of the attention which it would otherwise have received, has produced in the nation that state of mind and feeling most in sympathy with the poet's own. Nothing but the menace of a peril similar in character and magnitude could have enabled us to enter fully into the feelings of sixteenth century Englishmen with regard to the Spanish danger, and so into the feelings of Shakespeare himself, who was in this matter heart and soul with his fellow-countrymen. For the Stratford poet was nothing if not intensely patriotic. There is a singular appropriateness in the fact that he should have died on England's Day, the day of her patron saint which tradition says was also his birthday.

It was in Shakespeare's age that England first awoke to national consciousness, first realised herself. Englishmen had loved their country before but without knowing it; their patriotism had been instinctive. In Shakespeare's time it became conscious. It was as when the knowledge first dawns on a man that he loves a woman his passion acquires force from the discovery. Shakespeare's love for his country was in the vigour of its freshness like a stream that has just issued from its source in the mountains. He overflows with patriotism and spontaneous tributes of his affection. England is "this land of such dear souls," "this dear, dear land," our country is referred to as "our dear nurse," suggesting how she tends and cares for us when we are weak and helpless and unable to do anything for her in return. Yet patriotism should be independent of such considerations. Rome rewarded the great services of Coriolanus with banishment, but when in revenge he led a hostile army against the city, his mother reminded him that if he conquered Rome the benefit which he would thereby reap would be

Such a name,
Whose repetition will be dogg'd with curses;
Whose chronicle thus writ,—"The man was noble,
But with his last attempt he wip'd it out,
Destroy'd his country, and his name remains
To the ensuing age abhorr'd."

Thus in a few lines is summed up Shakespeare's opinion of the crime of the renegade.

Shakespeare's writings were the vehicle which gave expression to the fact that England had found herself. They were the first literary revelation of her national character. No one has since made another that has equalled it in truth or completeness, nor is another likely to. His picture of English character is as true of it to-day as when it was written, and will remain true while there are Englishmen on this planet. A modern writer has well said of the great Elizabethan:—"Shakespeare attained to all the spiritual powers of the English. He made a map of the English character. We have not yet passed the frontiers of it."

Shakespeare's contemporaries were in the position of the audience in a theatre before the lifting of the curtain. Their predominant feeling was one of expectancy. Great as were the men and events of the time, these seemed only forerunners, not worthy to unloose the shoe latchet of the greater to come. Shakespeare was vaguely conscious of his country's greatness, dimly realised that it was not fairly represented by her wealth, population, and territorial extent.

O England model to thy inward greatness, he exclaims,
Like little body with a mighty heart.

His belief in his country was unlimited and was encouraged by the circumstances of the age. Men were still alive who had witnessed her defiance of and rebellion against the Pope, in the eyes of orthodox, mediæval opinion a crime scarcely less heinous than rebellion against the Most High. Shakespeare himself had witnessed her engage in battle with the greatest military and naval power in Europe and emerge victorious from the conflict. In his age Englishmen were sailing over seas and exploring lands where in all the hundreds of years that had gone before Europeans had never ventured.

The sixteenth century was the age of the nation's adolescence. The years of her minority, when she was unconsciously growing up and developing on lines predetermined for her had passed. Her destiny was then delivered over into her own keeping, and free choice left to her of the many diverging paths open before her. Without at the time perceiving their ultimate destination she selected those which led to maritime power, oversea trade, and colonial empire. In Shakespeare the curtain is occasionally wafted aside and a lightning glimpse afforded of England's future which is seen but dimly like the kings,

That two-fold balls and treble sceptres carry.

whom Macbeth saw in the witches' glass, and which is a reference to the union of the three kingdoms under James I. In Shakespeare we obtain glimpses of the possibilities in his nation that in his day were still latent and had not yet unfolded themselves. He conceived of the people of the British Isles forming one united nation. Welsh, Scotch, and Irish are found fighting by the side of the English in his "Henry V." He even had a vision of our overseas empire, of the time when

Wherever the bright sun of heaven shall shine,
His honour and the greatness of his name
Shall be and make new nations he shall flourish,
And, like a mountain cedar, reach his branches
To all the plains about him: our children's children
Shall see this, and bless heaven.

We obtain from Shakespeare an impression of the English as freedom-loving, brave, and self-reliant, conscious of their superiority and lofty calling, and it is the one with which we are familiar. The worship of freedom has in modern times spread to almost every civilised country; but it was from England that it originated. Our Saxon forefathers instituted it there as long ago as when they first settled in the island, and throughout succeeding centuries their descendants were generally faithful to the ruling passion of the race, so that the Englishman at every period is found possessed of a strong love of freedom. When the Tudors were reigning the power of the monarch in Britain was, perhaps, greater than at any other epoch; but the attitude of English people to their sovereigns had nothing servile, cringing, nor fearful about it. In the Shakespearean plays we see private soldiers and the common people addressing their kings in an outspoken and even familiar manner and doing it with impunity. When Shakespeare makes Brutus say, "Who is there so base that he would be a bondman," he was giving expression to the natural feeling of the freeborn Englishman in the spacious times of great Elizabeth as at all other times.

It is an old saying that an Englishman's house is his castle; and its owner himself is as free as the king upon his throne. "Girt with friends or foes" he may dare to say the thing he will; and from this knowledge springs his fearlessness, candour, and dignity. This is a nation of kings, the "lords of human kind," the aristocracy among the nations. In the famous passage in Richard II. England is spoken of as "a royal throne of kings," "a sceptred isle, an earth of majesty." Her people are the salt of the earth, superior to all others as the Jew conceived himself to the Gentile, the Greek to the barbarian. "Who is there so rude that would not be a Roman?" wrote Shakespeare, thinking who is there so lost to all sense of the great and good that he would not be an

Englishman? In one place he calls England "a little world." He likes to think of her as different from the rest of Europe, of her people dwelling alone and not numbered among the nations, but of a superior clay and possessing qualities and privileges which they lack. They are a branch out of the common stock of Europe, but one that has been planted in a favoured spot, "another Eden," "demi-paradise"; a precious stone set in the silver sea which serves it in the office of a wall:—

Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands.

Shakespeare accepts the cardinal article of the Englishman's faith that his fellow-countrymen excel all others in what Cominius in 'Coriolanus' pronounces the "chiefest virtue," valour. He speaks of their land as "this seat of Mars," "this England that was wont to conquer others." In 'Henry V.' our attention is attracted to their superior fighting qualities over the French, as emphasised by their victory at Agincourt, where they were not only outnumbered but suffering from disease and want of food.

In Emerson's fine essay on courage there occurs the following passage:—

There is a persuasion in the soul of man that he is here for cause, that he was put down in this place by the Creator, to do the work for which He inspires him, that thus he is an over-match for all antagonists that could combine against him.

It is from this consciousness that he has called to a great work and endowed with the necessary powers for its accomplishment, that the Englishman's self-reliance springs. In this spirit in Shakespeare's Day he met and overcame the Armada, in this spirit he is now combating the German peril. Defeat never so much as enters into his calculations, for he is resolved to win and sure of himself, sure that:—

This England never did, nor never shall,
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror
But when it first did help to wound itself.
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we shall shock them. Nought shall make us rue,
If England to itself do rest but true.

D. A. E. VEAL.

TRADE AFTER THE WAR

THE struggle in which we are engaged is a racial war for the domination of the German-speaking peoples. It is nevertheless the outcome of a prolonged economic contest, under the name of peaceful penetration, which did not progress fast enough for our enemy, and so he went to war and has killed our commercial kindness, which is the goose that has laid his daily golden eggs. The facts of the past are not changed—how can they be ! but the war has opened our eyes to their enthralling significance. The commercial world has wisely paid a visit to the oculist, tested its sight and got what spectacles it needed, and now the whole nation sees the facts clearly, undistorted by party astigmatism or dimmed by political short sight. Only the colour-blind are incurable.

The present pressing necessity is to decide on a National and Imperial policy regarding trade and commerce, in concert first with our dominions and then with our allies. Our Chambers of Commerce have recently passed a whole gamut of resolutions, most of them admirable, but nearly all of them hardy annuals, the great but only difference this year being that they are carried unanimously and mark an historic epoch in our economic system. Let me take some examples rapidly : The Board of Trade is a misnomer. It does nothing for the development of commerce or industry, so we must organise a business Ministry of Commerce to further its interests rather than regulate them. We must have an additional banking system to finance our new industries at home and abroad. The Government must help us to regain control of the industries vital to our national safety in war and our commercial security in peace. The textile trades must not be at the mercy of German dyes ; we must be able to make cartridges even though the Germans have bought up all the spelter in our dominions. We must have magnetos for motor transport and aeroplanes, also field glasses and telescopic sights, without going to Germany for them. These things have been threshed out by the Chambers, but all their resolutions will be unavailing if we have no settled National policy ready and in

force the moment the war ends. What that policy should be I venture to suggest in a practical form. However much we may have under-estimated Germany's military power, we never have despised her commercial organisation and success. The chief aim of her world policy, clear to all now, was to shatter our Empire before it became an economic organic whole. Economic predominance rather than territory is the object of this war. To hold Belgium, perhaps—but to reduce France and Russia to economic subjection to the German economic system, to extend it to Bagdad, and then England, enfeebled by loss of trade, would ultimately have to yield her colonies and the mastery of the seas. That object she steadily keeps in view, and is engaged in perfecting her policy to that end at this moment, in anticipation of the coming of peace. It is the opinion of our far-seeing business men that we must be prepared to find ourselves confronted soon after peace is signed with a great commercial combination of nations headed by Germany and directed against Great Britain.

As I have said, Germany has lost no time. Her scheme is prepared. In the last month of the old year a secret conference of delegates of the Central European Economic Associations was held in Vienna, under the leadership of the Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, Baron Plener (ex-finance Minister), and Herr Wekerle (ex-president of the Council of Ministers). A comprehensive economic arrangement between the German Empire and the two States of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy was elaborately formulated and agreed to. They adopted *in toto* what is ordinarily understood as the preferential policy which some of us advocate between ourselves and our dominions. Shortly the arrangement is as follows: "The improvement and development of a reciprocal system of trade and traffic in the widest sense of the word. . . . In treaties of peace such preferential treatment shall not be accorded to other States. . . . All treaties with other States to be made by the allied Empires as one unit."

The German treaty system (of which this is the latest sample), designed with consummate skill to provide for the security of German trade and manufactures and to control Europe, which has grown up in the last fifty years, must be defeated; and we must substitute for it a Western treaty system of which England and the Empire shall be the centre, otherwise the Vienna treaty will be extended to include as many countries as possible, and Great Britain, by prohibitory tariffs, will be excluded from European trade. If we continue to pursue the policy of Cobden and the Manchester School, to which the nation has been wedded for so many years past, of refusing to make any fiscal arrangements at all with foreign countries, or even with our own dominions,

our export trade and our commercial and industrial position must be seriously jeopardised. The English economic creed has hitherto relied on "the most favoured nation clause," which in practice has proved so great a failure that Mr. Runciman recently admitted in the House of Commons that it is useless, and that Germany, by manipulating the classification of goods, has prevented our getting any material benefit from it. It is also lamentably true that this country, when negotiating alone, has no tariff wherewith to bargain for the entrance of our goods into the German-European combination on fair terms. But if our kingdom and our dominions and dependencies combine together, each to give reciprocal advantages to the other, *and all to act together as a "unit" in negotiations with other countries*, we can give concessions and advantages to our mutual friends which are not possible if we split up into various separate independent dominions, each one making its own commercial treaties.

It is imperative that the Government should act at once, meet the representatives of the dominions, and accept and act upon the resolutions that have been adopted unanimously at all the Imperial Conferences. Then when that is settled, first let us bring in France, who hates the treaty of Frankfort of 1871, and who will not rivet its chains upon her neck again, and then Russia and Italy, who have so long loathed German financial domination. Such a combination of powers with England as the centre is the only practicable answer to the German Economic Treaty system. It is the condition precedent to the prosperity of our trade after the war. But it must be done now while there is time. It is of little use to gain even military victory if we are to suffer economic defeat after hostilities end. If we pursue our fatal policy of *laissez-faire* the Empire will be swamped with cheap goods which have accumulated in Germany during the war, whilst our own stocks are running very low. In addition to her goods, Germany has her plant, not only intact, but increased by the plunder of the industrial territories she occupies. It is on her plant and her stock that she relies to resume her commercial war. Money she has none; her home securities have no value; they are mortgaged to support her paper currency; and if the Empire and the Allies are mad enough to permit her to renew her supplies of money by buying her exports, she will rapidly re-establish her commercial credit, revive the value of her home securities, and turn her military defeat into a commercial victory. The moment the economic organisation of the Empire and the Allies is complete, the Germans would know that the Empire and the Allies together could force a modification of their tariff rates on our goods, and

by excluding such of their exports as we wished we could prevent the Germans regaining their commercial and manufacturing supremacy, cripple them for a generation as our competitor in the free market of the world, and prevent her from turning her military defeat into a commercial victory by destroying this country's trade after the war. This is the true economic blockade which, by destroying the means of militarism and unfair trade competition at one blow, will hold out the prospect of a real and lasting peace!

The British Empire alone in the past has taken 70 to 80 per cent. of the total of Germany's exports. If the Empire as a whole, in conjunction with France, Russia, and Italy, form an economic preferential alliance, and exclude such of those exports as we please, we can look forward to trade after the war with equanimity. The Germans know this only too well. What they fear most is that it will come to pass. If the Empire and the Allies make it clear at the earliest possible moment that they have bound themselves to act on these principles, our enemies will have to reconsider what they are to achieve by this war; and when they realise that their main object is unattainable, that will do more to bring them to their knees, and to shorten the war than many an allied victory in the field. That academic and hardened political economist, the President of the Board of Trade, has admitted that if such an arrangement would help to end the war we should have it. He said: "We and our Allies, after the war, must have the opportunity of recuperating our trade first, and Germany must be prevented from doing anything which would make us or our Allies suffer." Self-preservation, not revenge, is our motive.

Our policy is justified by the great sacrifices Germany's conduct of the war has forced us to make, and our national and commercial interest must come first. Having captured German trade during the war, we must retain it afterwards. The means by which we can develop our commerce and industry have been discussed by the Chambers of Commerce of the kingdom. Banks must combine to finance industries abroad and at home, and the Government to whom they owe so much must, if necessary, compel their services. Employers must grasp the hand of Science. Commercial travellers must learn other languages than their own. Consuls must be business men, and above all, Britishers, and so on. Never again must we allow Germany or any other country to have a monopoly of those essential raw materials and industries which are vital to the country in time of war or peace, if we can lay our hands on them within the Empire. We were not able to make cartridges for our rifles or our guns for lack of spelter; the Germans had bought up all the

ore in Australia. We were short of magnetos, without which our motor transport and our aeroplanes were useless. There was no optical glass industry to supply field glasses or for telescopic sights for our snipers. The textile trades of Lancashire and Yorkshire were nearly at a standstill, and threatened with collapse for want of dyes. The Germans held indispensable patents and a monopoly of various essential chemicals. "Never again shall that happen!" said Mr. Runciman in the House of Commons. But how can he or anyone prevent it, when the German exclusive tariff system is revived at the end of the war, if we continue to pursue the fatal policy of *laissez-faire*? The conclusion is: Party shibboleths must be jettisoned; the National Government, acting with the advice of the best and most experienced minds of the Empire, must bring about such an economic combination of the Empire and the Allies, with England as the centre, as will give us all a fair chance for trade after the war.

Industries which have been encouraged by the Government during the war must not be killed by German competition, and the patriotic investors ruined. Industries which have been suspended for munitions work must not be crippled when peace comes. Above all, our industries must be developed and production increased and fostered by the Government to find employment for the millions, who, while fighting for the hearths and homes of the kingdom and the Empire, have at the same time saved our trade and industries from destruction.

E. R. BARTLEY DENNISS.

AN IMMIGRATION SCHEME

THE New Brunswick Provincial Government is considering a comprehensive scheme of immigration. It is understood that the Government favours the community plan of settlement. This will provide for several hundred families, and will probably mean an expenditure of a million and a half dollars or more. The province owns thousands of acres of fertile lands along the line of the Grand Trunk Pacific, the Kent Northern and other lines of railway, and it is probable that some of these lands will be set apart for this purpose.

WHALE-HUNTING IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC

OF all the stories associated with the sea few are more fascinating than that of whale-hunting in the turbulent waters of the North Atlantic Ocean. Many a time have we burnt the candle to its socket poring over the pages of some teller of sea-tales. And during the night have not our dreams been full of whalers flinging their harpoons into the massive bodies of spurting whales, fighting for hours until the sea became blood-red, and the pierced monster lay prone upon the ocean like a disabled ship?

It was inevitable, sooner or later, that the brains of man would ponder over so promising an industry until mechanism brought it within the sphere of modern commercial methods. It is quite true that science has usurped romance and scattered some of the pleasantries of our dreams; but there still remains sufficient adventure in whale-hunting to fascinate the unbridled fancy of the youthful mind.

Quite early in the nineteenth century whaling was carried on off the coast of Newfoundland, but it was not until the invention of a harpoon-gun by a Norwegian sailor that the industry was placed on a thoroughly commercial and profitable basis. At the present time there are nearly a dozen companies operating in the Colony and along the coast of Labrador. As many as twelve hundred whales have been caught in a season whose yield of oil has approximated two million gallons, whalebone eight hundred and guano six hundred tons respectively.

The steamers usually set out at the dawn of day when the whales visit the surface to "blow." The vessels are about one hundred tons and can command a speed of twelve knots an hour. They are equipped with the modern harpoon, an instrument composed of two bolts of iron 4 feet long armed with movable barbs. This is fired from a gun at the bow of the vessel, and the explosive bomb never fails to accomplish its mission in two seconds after being fired. The cable attached to the harpoon and the ship holds the whale securely until he is played out,

after which he is pumped buoyant, that is, filled with hot air from a pipe at the boiler, and then he is left upon the surface of the water until the termination of the day's hunt, when he is towed to the flensing slips of one of the various factories along the coast.

The sperm whales are the most coveted ; but they are not so numerous as the other varieties in the North Atlantic. The length of the sperm is about seventy-five feet, his weight ninety tons, and he yields something like twenty-five tons of oil. He is not difficult to kill, swims low, and is distinguishable by his double blow-hole. The hunters generally "fish" them in a three-mile circle, and if once they can be confined to that area the killing of them presents no difficulty. They are caught between June and September in the vicinity of the Funk Islands, the home of halibut, the sperm whale's favourite dish. As many as nine halibut have been taken out of the body of a dead sperm. They are also extremely fond of sharks. Only a short time ago a sperm whale was captured near the Funks, which yielded from its head alone ninety-eight and a half casks of oil containing forty-six gallons each, held in its stomach a shark nine feet long, three large halibut and fifty codfish of various sizes.

The blue or sulphur whales are the first of the various species to show themselves early in the spring. They are probably the least pugnacious and consequently easy to kill. A peculiarity of the sulphur whale is its enormous appetite. Its favourite food is the grill, a very small fish called the "miniature sea-urchin." When these whales have taken in their fish, they come to the surface to blow out the water and swallow the meal at their leisure. A good sulphur whale will measure ninety feet in length. The most valuable part is the blubber which is taken off in strips like slices of bacon, dropped into a boiler and rendered into oil. The meat is cut up and boiled into a fertiliser.

A third variety is the hump-back. The habits of the hump-back are similar to those of the sulphur, except that it exhibits a passionate fondness for herring and white fish. The whalers will tell you that an interesting trait of the hump-back is his apparent grief at the loss of his female companion—if a "cow" is taken the "bull" has no desire to live, and will often deliberately seek death at the hands of his pursuers.

The fourth variety found in the North Atlantic is the fin-back. As many as three hundred and fifty have been caught in one season. One fin-back will yield as many as thirty casks of oil.

The procreative processes of whales are extremely interesting. A "cow" usually carries her young nine months before it is emitted to the water. When born it is from eighteen to twenty feet long. Usually a "cow" bears one child at a time, rarely does she give birth to twins.

Some whales are great fighters, and few sights are more enthralling than a battle between a valiant fighter and the deadly harpoon. The moment he is struck he plunges below the surface, where he often remains for twenty minutes before reappearing. When he reappears he blows out a great stream of blood that makes the surrounding water a veritable battle-field. The fight may be prolonged for a considerable time, according to the vulnerability or otherwise of the spot where the bomb has exploded.

As soon as the whales have been towed from the slaughter-house to the flensing slip (a sloping wharf along which the body of the whale is dragged by heavy chains and a windlass into the factory) the operation of cutting up takes place immediately. The flensers take their long knives and remove the outer coat of blubber from eighteen inches to two feet wide. Great joints of meat are passed through a machine that cuts them into thin slices. The next phase is the extraction of the oil by means of heated vats. When the oil has been drawn off, the remains are manufactured into a fertiliser for use in the cotton plantations of the Southern States of America. The teeth of the whale are cleaned, dried in the sun, and prepared for the markets of the United Kingdom and the United States. The teeth are the celebrated whalebone for which it is never difficult to procure a ready market. The flesh of the whale is not considered edible by white people, but the Asiatics look upon a slice of the whale's tail as a coveted delicacy.

FORD FAIRFORD

(*Author of 'Newfoundland,' 'Canada,' 'Cuba.'*)

RESEARCH WORK IN CANADA

THE Canadian Research Bureau has started operations in Montreal for the purpose of developing the vast natural resources of Canada and supplying the requirements of the British Empire and her Allies from friendly sources. The discoveries and information obtained by the organisation will be supplied for the special information of the Canadian Pacific Railway and circulated by them in bulletins issued from time to time to merchants, manufacturers, scientific societies, prospectors and students throughout the world. This organisation owes its existence to Lord Shaughnessy, who considered that the time was ripe to undertake a scientific research into Canada's mineral, metal, hydro-electric and chemical resources in view of the fact that up to the present so little has been done in the way of investigation and development when it is considered that Canada occupies an area larger than the whole Continent of Europe, much of which is practically virgin ground. The movement will confer great benefits on the Empire at large and the Dominion of Canada in particular.

THE RAND SHOW AND LAND SETTLEMENT

A SOLUTION OF TWO PROBLEMS

HERE in South Africa the ploughshare's tribute is garnered up and the farmer's treasures in cattle and kind are laid out, as evidence of this great land's possibilities. A goodly show in truth not to be shamed easily. And this, notwithstanding that so many loyalists are away busily engaged in erasing those spots that must be wiped out before this country and the Empire can move in unison, that the farmer has not benefited in many parts, that his mealies are banking up for want of shipping. Despite all drawbacks, there is a wave of human resolution that the land is to assert itself. The municipality of Johannesburg has already realised that lasting industry must come from the land, and is dealing with some four million pounds worth of meat annually; soon this city will be sending substantial shipments to Smithfield. The show is to hearten the farmer and to stimulate trade. It stands to-day the greatest of its kind in South Africa and full of usefulness to those abroad who will study its purpose.

To many a mind the oft-recurring question comes of finding homes for men across the seas for those who have done their duty, and in their hour of helplessness must not be neglected and cast aside. History tells us that the United States of America has for all these years poured out some two hundred million dollars annually to the heirs of the men who fought in the Civil War half a century ago. A like return to our men to-day is impossible, but America has shown a nation's gratitude, and it is a noble example. This great Empire is too rich in honour and possessions to despoil its manhood of its strength and leave it afterwards to linger and die in starvation. Up to now the matter of finding land has been left in few hands, and whilst not decrying the effort or system, I would seriously advocate enlisting the services of those who have had experience in the places where men are to move to, for it is only by co-operation and working on a larger scale that the attributes of

the various places can be brought forward clearly and settlements arranged with proper security.

For this purpose this sunny land is well adapted. The history of settlements of former years need not be considered. Many may shrink with fear on account of the disasters that have befallen the farmers who have lost stock recently through drought, and there are those who have suffered through troubles peculiar to South Africa; to all these I say, "Look beyond the veil." Here there is land of every description, Government agriculturists inspect the districts, make tests and advise farmers. Only land which has been tested and proved is recommended to be sown, and the various cereals, grasses, and roots sent to the Rand Show speak volumes for the land's possibilities. There are the trees, the bushes, the plants, that will withstand droughts and provide food for sheep and cattle when there are no rains. The Burbank spikeless cactus from California will store food and remain growing for five years without rain. The earliest varieties are said to produce enormous tonnage of edible leaf and fruit for stock and pigs. The American aloe rivals the Burbank spikeless cactus, and daily other plants are being tested to fill the gap and overcome Nature's severities.

Just as the fertile soil of the desert is only greened where the waters of the oasis abound, so the soft rich soil of the mountain is useless without warmth, but here there is warmth, there is soil, and with proper farming anything can be produced. It is a world of promise to the man who will work, and it is a moment in the history of the Empire when his presence is required, and required here more than at any other spot. There are racial discrepancies that are in need of adjustment, and the white man in Africa is like a bark sailing through a mighty sea of ever-increasing blacks; and if the white race is to direct and keep the lead, it is imperative to have a movement that will tend to equalise and uphold him. It is clear that the mission of our plains is to produce a host of things for export to Europe. With water sufficient for cattle from boreholes the land will produce without irrigation. Heretofore the pioneers sought out every fountain, and although farms were 6,000 acres in extent, only five or ten acres were tilled and the rest remained wilderness. To-day, as the exhibits testify, all kinds of cereals, potatoes, maize, fruit, and a variety of things are being grown successfully.

The immense advance of Canada and Australia has left South Africa neglected like a lost Cinderella. It is a country with a world of rich assets, but without the hand of sympathy or the purse of providence to put them to use. If the changes of fortune should turn the eyes of Great Britain towards South

Africa, and it is an imperative necessity to develop every acre, if men such as were placed in Canada and Australia (men who have proved their worth by returning to fight for their home-land), a race of stalwarts will arise who will outgrow and trample out treason. If all this can be done, it would be a worthy act of co-operation to carry out the work in its entirety with those who have founded and made the agricultural society here what it is. Then the display of this country's riches, and the efforts of the various directors and schools of agriculture will not have been in vain.

W. P. TAYLOR.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN CANADA

NOTWITHSTANDING the very recent extension of the co-operative movement to Canada, it is possible to distinguish characteristic features in the methods pursued which may tend to make the system adopted there distinctly different from those prevailing in other countries. These characteristics arise in some places from the prominent part the Government has taken as leader of the movement; in others, and these the older provinces, from the degree to which the agricultural associations, such as farmers' clubs and farmers' institutes, have taken the initiative to further those collective activities which the needs of the moment required, without creating a special organisation for each purpose. Thus, in Ontario, the movement has been advanced through the work of the farmers' clubs, the fruit growers' and the vegetable growers' associations, and similar agricultural societies. In Nova Scotia co-operation is represented chiefly by the Fruit Growers' Federation. The methods employed in Saskatchewan are to a great extent typical of the system which is being adopted in the prairie provinces, the peculiar feature of which is the part the Provincial Government takes in the movement, as evinced by the aid given to the Farmers' Elevator Company and to the creameries, which are largely conducted under the direction of the Government.

BRITISH INDUSTRIES AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT

IRON AND STEEL

THE prosperity of a country depends largely on the possession of coal and iron, as coal is needed for the furnaces and iron for the machinery of all manufactures. Manufacturing countries naturally have the most trade, and Britain, United States, Germany, France, Belgium, and Russia have come into the front rank since they developed their coal and iron.

Iron is generally found in the form of oxide, as hematite and magnetite, of carbonate as clay ironstone, or of sulphide as pyrites. Smelting consists in obtaining the metal from the ore. The iron ore is heated in large blast furnaces, with coke and limestone, when the other substances pass off as gas, and the pure iron collects at the bottom. The melted iron is drawn off at intervals, and run into moulds, when it is called "cast iron," or "pig iron." The iron industry has advanced since 1850, when coke began to be used for smelting in place of charcoal or coal. Cast iron contains some of the carbon from the coke, and this makes it brittle and not easy to work. It is used for stoves, pipes, and kitchen utensils, but not for anything which has to stand a strain. If strength is needed, and an iron that can be moulded into shape, the carbon must be removed, and pure or wrought iron be obtained. This is done by melting up the cast iron with iron oxide, when the carbon goes off as CO, and the pure iron is left. Wrought iron is ductile, and so can be drawn out to form wire, and malleable, so that it can be hammered into sheets. Steel is between the two. It has about .6 per cent. carbon, while wrought iron has .1 per cent., and cast iron 3.8 per cent. The cementation process of making steel consists in melting wrought iron, and adding the necessary amount of carbon. The Bessemer process consists in sending a blast of hot air through melted cast iron. Finely tempered steel has been cooled slowly, so that it will bend, but not break. Steel is hard and close-grained, and so is useful for railway lines, girders of bridges, boilers,

armour plates of battleships, etc., while its property of taking a fine edge and point makes it useful for cutlery.

Iron is found in England with the coal, and this is a great advantage, as each is needed to work the other, and both are heavy for transport. Iron used to be worked chiefly in the coal fields of South Scotland, South Stafford, South Wales, and Yorkshire. A purer iron free from phosphorus is needed for making steel, and so the Cumberland iron began to be worked, and Sheffield imported iron from Sweden, and South Wales obtained it from Spain. The rich ironstone of Cleveland was discovered about 1850, and since then this district has supplied half the British output of iron. Iron industries are now chiefly carried on in Cleveland, South Scotland, and South Wales, all of which have the advantage of being near the sea, so they can easily export their products. The ore of the coal districts is almost exhausted, and has become uncertain, and inferior in quality. More iron ores are therefore imported, and the South Wales smelting works and steel manufacture depend almost entirely on foreign metals.

British coal and iron have been worked for centuries, and will probably only last about another fifty years. Coal is being rapidly exhausted, especially the South Wales steam coal, which is used so largely for ships. Coal is not only needed as a fuel, but coke, coal tar, and coal gas are made from it. The Cleveland district is still rich in iron, but the best of its ore has already been used. In other places the seams are thinning out, and the supply is uncertain. It is advisable therefore to keep our remaining coal and iron in the country, as when the supply is at an end we shall be at a serious disadvantage. We now export coal to the value of £54,000,000 per annum, and iron ores to the value of £410,000. It would be well to economise these, and keep them in the country, as when our supplies are at an end we shall have to import coal and iron at any price that may be asked. Even though electricity and other sources of power may be used more, we shall still need coke for smelting coal gas, and the dyes and other products obtainable from coal tar.

The richest coal-field in the world is that of Pennsylvania, and as iron is found near it, the United States have rapidly advanced to the first place in the world for production of coal and iron. The coal is of a good kind, and so near the surface that it can be quarried in many places. Bituminous coal is found on the west of the Alleghany Mountains, and anthracite on the east. Petroleum and natural gas are also found here, and are used in the manufactures. Iron ore is found near Lake Superior, and it is also rich, and near the surface. Many of the mines and smelting works are so near the lake that the iron can be shipped

directly. Most of it is sent to Pittsburg, which has the greatest iron and steel manufactures in the world, and uses natural gas in place of coal. Germany has rich deposits of iron ore on and near the Westphalian coal-field between the Sieg and the Lahn. Essen is the centre for smelting and for machinery, arms and ammunition, and all kinds of iron and steel goods.* Iron industries are also carried on at Elberfeld, Barmen, Cologne, Dusseldorf and Duisburg, all of which are close together in the Westphalian district of the Lower Rhine. Iron ores are also produced in Saxony, Silesia, South Russia, Styria, Carinthia, Belgium, Luxemburg, and near Nancy in the Moselle district.

Iron manufacture in England is chiefly carried on in the "Black Country," which includes parts of Staffordshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Warwickshire. Birmingham has been for centuries the centre of the iron and steel trade, and has long been known all over the world for its machinery, railway material, engines, girders for bridges, and iron and steel goods of all kinds. It was described in 1607 as a town "swarming with inhabitants, and echoing with the noise of anvils." This midland district, however, is not well adapted to the iron trade as it is so far from the sea, and the goods are heavy. While South Scotland, South Wales and Cleveland can send their iron to the sea for about 1s. per ton, Birmingham has to pay about 8s. or 10s. per ton for carriage. The industry, however, is firmly established there, and will probably continue. The goods made are chiefly those requiring skilled labour and but little raw material, as these cost less to export. The towns round Birmingham specialise in such things as locks and keys, brass and iron work for harness, gas pipes, wheels, weighing machines, nails, needles, pins, fish hooks, chains, pens, screws, etc. As well as iron and steel goods, brass ware, jewellery, electro-plated goods, glass and pottery, are made.

Cutlery is made in Sheffield, steam engines and railway carriages for export at Manchester, Birmingham, Newcastle and Darlington. The railway companies generally make their own engines and carriages at Crewe, Swindon, Derby, Doncaster, Eastleigh, and Oswestry. Machines for manufactures are made in the districts needing them, machinery for cotton at Bolton and Oldham, for woollen at Keighley, and agricultural implements at Grantham, Gainsborough, Lincoln and Ipswich. Shipbuilding is carried on at the ports of the Clyde, Tyne, Wear, Tees, Humber and Mersey. Warships are made at the naval dockyards.

The following tables show goods which have been imported but could be profitably made in Britain; and coal, raw materials

* The Krupp iron works at Essen cover more than a square mile of ground, and employ 70,000 men.

and machinery which have been exported, to our future disadvantage.

IMPORTS IN MILLION £.

Goods.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Iron and steel manufactures .	7·9	9·0	11·1	12·9	15·2
Other metals and manufactures	24·0	24·0	27·0	31·0	32·0
Cutlery and hardware . . .	3·7	4·6	5·2	6·9	7·3
Electrical apparatus	1·8	1·6	1·4	1·4	1·6
Machinery	4·4	4·5	5·7	6·8	7·3
Wood, manufactured	2·0	2·3	2·5	2·8	3·5
Carriages, motors, cycles . .	4·7	5·6	6·5	7·8	8·3

EXPORTS IN MILLION £.

Material and Machinery.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Coal, coke, etc.	37·0	37·8	38·0	42·0	53·0
Iron ore	·5	·47	·45	·41	·41
Machinery	28·0	29·0	31·0	33·0	37·0

Several industries which might be developed in England have lately been brought into notice, as the making of motor cars, electrical plant and apparatus, gas mantles, tin plate, and even knitting needles.

The motor car industry is hindered by foreign competition. Before the war parts were imported from Germany, and cars till quite lately were imported from the United States to the value of over £1,200,000. The American firms turn out tens of thousands per year, and so can afford to sell them cheaply. English firms not being sure of a market, seldom make more than a thousand, and generally only a few hundreds. Also an American firm makes all its cars on one pattern, and so the expense is less. If we were sure of a market, and the manufacturers agreed that each firm should work on one model only, there might be a great advance in the motor industry.

Electrical plant is generally made in Germany, but could equally well be made in England. The plant needed in the collieries, the electrical apparatus and the alloys could be made here. The tin plate industry of South Wales used to be most flourishing, but it is being crushed out by foreign competition and by high freight rates. Tin plate is iron coated with tin to prevent its rusting, and is used for ordinary tins, saucepans, etc. The making of knitting machine needles is being taken up by Redditch and Birmingham.

E. C. ABBOTT.

HOW TO CAPTURE FOREIGN TRADE

MUCH is being said and written about regaining the trade we handed over so freely to Germany in pre-war days. But if we are to be successful in our efforts employers of labour, as well as the workers themselves, must become more industrious; must concentrate their thoughts more upon their work; and less upon amusement and pleasure. There must be fewer holidays; the "week-end" of Friday afternoon to Tuesday morning must give way to the old custom of Saturday afternoon to Monday morning. How can we expect as a nation to thrive commercially when half the time of the business man's life is spent in recreation—three and a half years wasted out of every seven, to say nothing of public holidays and the usual summer vacation! Stringent legislation must also be enforced against the professional agitator of strikes.

But apart from any improvements in the social and industrial habits of the community, it will be useless to attempt to regain foreign trade until our monetary system is placed upon a more simple and less complicated basis. The foreigner will not trouble to master the intricacies of our obsolete and heterogeneous system. Innumerable contracts have been lost to our merchants—and if lost to our merchants, lost to our country—from no other cause than the condition of our monetary system. A foreigner writing to a daily newspaper in 1910 expressed himself thus:

One of the chief reasons why you are losing foreign trade is your coinage; time is too expensive to be bothered in calculating £ s. d. into decimal money; therefore we prefer to do business with Germany or France, and so save time . . . When you alter your money and adopt the metric system, teach your travellers to be more polite, and learn the language of the other country they want to deal with, you will have a trade boom such as you have never experienced before. It will be your best weapon to fight Germany with.

We must place our monetary system on a decimal basis, and so assimilate it with the monetary systems of other nationalities with whom we trade. We must also bring into general use the metric system by substituting it for the present Imperial jumble

of weights and measures. But, as Mr. W. E. Gladstone very truly said, "the rectification of the coinage must precede that of weights and measures." In 1857, during the sittings of the Royal Commission on weights and measures and coinage, a petition was presented to parliament praying for decimalisation. The petition was signed by twelve hundred city merchants, sixty-eight out of sixty-nine chambers of commerce, commercial associations, bankers, schoolmasters, and others, recommending the pound as the basis. Had it been granted, how different things might have been for this country! How much the change would be valued by bankers is shown by the fact that the Bank of England subscribed £100 towards the funds of the Decimal Association, which is now engaged in the promotion of the present scheme for decimalisation.

In 1847 the florin was first issued as a decimal coin, having embossed upon it the words "one-tenth of a pound." It only remains therefore to subdivide the florin into 100 cents instead of into 96 farthings to complete the decimal series. The penny would then become 4 (British) cents; sixpence, a quarter-florin and 25 cents; and the shilling, a half-florin and 50 cents. The decimal expressions for sixpence would be "twenty-five"; for one and sixpence, "seventy-five"; for two and sixpence, "one twenty-five." By making the florin the "acting" unit, and retaining the pound sterling as the "essential" unit of value, the advantage is gained of having only two decimal places for the fraction; and the disadvantage of losing sight of the pound is not incurred, for all the figures to the left of the first (or unit) figure in florins show the sum in pounds at sight, without any troublesome arithmetical calculation, thus: fl. 1,234, could be expressed as £123 + fl. 4.

A not unimportant part of the rearrangement of the currency is the proposed introduction of two nickel coins of 5 and 10 cents, with scalloped edges to distinguish them from silver coins of similar size. The latter coin—the "dice"—it is anticipated will be very popular.

We should thus have a monetary system that could be assimilated at once with any foreign coinage with which we might have to deal. Also one that would work harmoniously with the metric weights and measures, used almost universally abroad, and which, since the passing of the Act of 1897, can be legally used in this country. The chief difficulties attending foreign trade being overcome, and the greatest stumbling-block in the way of re-possessing ourselves of the trade which has been wrested from us by Germany removed for ever, there ought to be no difficulty in our mercantile population regaining what they have lost in the past. A new era would commence; and

our country, if business men will only show the same zeal, and practice the same industry and enterprise as our foreign neighbours, offering traders what they need and not what we think they ought to need, will undoubtedly reap a wonderful harvest.

To complete the scheme of decimalisation, it will be necessary to introduce a Bill for the substitution of the metric system for the present Imperial mensural confusion. For, unless and until this system is in general use, little headway can be made commercially. It is not proposed however to take any powers for its compulsory use until a period, say, six months after the introduction of the new coinage, by which time it is expected the people will have become familiar with the decimal mode of calculation.

The teaching of the decimal system in the elementary schools will help considerably to lessen any difficulties which may arise during the period of change. Indeed, with the coinage we may fairly anticipate that these difficulties would be *nil*. With regard to the weights and measures at first there would undoubtedly be some little friction, especially in small purchases, but this difficulty would soon be overcome, and as tradesmen would also adapt their prices, calculations would be far easier than is the case in present circumstances. People would soon learn that if a kilo (1,000 grams) of sugar cost, say, fl. 1.50, 100 grams (1 hectogram) would cost fl. 0.15 or 15 cents.

The Parliamentary Committee of 1853, in summing up their report on decimal coinage fully recognised that any change would be accompanied by some inconvenience, but recorded their conviction that the obstacles were not of such a nature as to create any doubt of the expediency of introducing that system. In their opinion the necessary inconvenience attending a transition stage would be far more than compensated by the great and permanent benefits which the change would confer upon the public of this country, "of which the advantages will be participated in to a still greater extent by future generations."

The spirit of patriotism which has been aroused in the breasts of all British people during this terrible war should inspire their hearts to give every assistance in their power to bring to a successful issue a reform far too long delayed, one that will materially assist this country, not only to regain its commercial position of supremacy, but to maintain that position for all time.

W. W. HARDWICKE, M.D.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

THE City Council of St. John, New Brunswick, has enacted a by-law putting the Daylight Saving Scheme in operation in that city from midnight on April 30 until the same hour on September 30. St. John is thus the first city in maritime Canada to adopt daylight saving, as it was the first to adopt the commission form of civic government and the town planning system. The Provincial Legislature will be asked to pass an Act making the daylight saving movement effective throughout the province, and thus remove a possible source of confusion. The city of Winnipeg has also adopted the scheme.

It has been decided that Italian, French, Russian and other soldiers of the Allies who were residents of Canada before the war and left the Dominion to join the colours in their native countries shall, on their return to Ontario, receive the same treatment from the Soldiers' Aid Commission as native-born Canadians or British soldiers.

A CAR load of supplies for the Canadian base hospitals sent out from the Winnipeg Red Cross Society's supply system in that city was insured for £3,200, and represented the work of the women of Manitoba. In order to minimise expense the car was packed entirely by the women themselves. The only part of the work not done by them was the nailing on of the metal strips. The contents of the car consisted of 600 cases containing pyjama suits, hospital suits, dressing gowns, socks, ward slippers, bed socks, bed jackets, surgical shirts, day shirts, night shirts, personal property, bags, kit bags, sheets, pillow cases, hot water bags, covers, towels, face cloths, operation stockings, and old linen, flannel and cotton.

WHILE Canada, like every other part of the Empire, is recruiting men for the war at white heat, she is also preparing for the advent of peace in so far as that may affect the settlement of soldiers upon the land and the agricultural future of the Dominion. "When the war stops," the Canadian Minister of Public Works is reported to have said recently, "the whole world will be rushing full speed ahead with war preparations. Then suddenly they will not be wanted. Unless great caution is exercised there is bound to be industrial trouble. And that is where our vast and rich prairies will come in. Out there is where we must 'dig in' to meet this last charge of the enemy. We will have in the prairies by far the most genuinely tempting magnet for migrating

people in the world. There will be nothing like them, and there will be a lot of migrating. Where will these European emigrants go? Will they go to the foreign lands—lands where they will be lost for ever to the Allies? or will they come to Canada where they will be under the British flag? What we want to do is to pick up our great West out there and put it in the 'Show Window.' We want to be able to go practically to the door of every European (except Germans, Austrians and Bulgars) who is thinking of seeking a home elsewhere, and show him the Canadian West—tall wheat, ample railway connections, growing cities and all. It will be the finest thing in the world for him and for Canada."

A THOUSAND farms for returned soldiers will have been prepared by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company by the autumn. The farms will be situated in various parts of Northern Saskatchewan and Northern and Southern Alberta. They will be chiefly in blocks of forty, but some of the soldiers will be allowed to choose their own land and will be assisted in its preparation. Since Lord Shaughnessy first announced the project of assisting returned soldiers by means of prepared farms, a good deal of progress has been made. Actual work on the land will be started immediately, the initial preparations being now practically completed. Some of the farms will probably be in the irrigation block east of Calgary and at Lethbridge.

RECENT advices from Nova Scotia state that from the commencement of the war to April 1, 1916, nearly 18,000 men enlisted for overseas service. In addition to this number there are over 3,000 men on home service in the Province. The population of Nova Scotia, in 1911, was 492,338, of whom 251,019 were males and 241,319 females. Of the males 57,559 were between the ages of 20 and 35.

CANADA'S trade for the fiscal year reached the enormous total of £284,800,000, showing an advance of £69,200,000 over the record total for the previous year. Heavy increases are seen in nearly all lines of exports, the total value of exports of domestic products being £148,200,000 compared with £81,800,000 in the previous year. Imports of dutiable goods amounted to £57,800,000 and of free goods to £43,600,000 against £55,800,000 and £35,000,000 in the previous year.

ACCORDING to the official report on the agricultural values throughout the whole of Canada for the year 1915, the average value of farm land alienated from the Crown and held for agricultural purposes, whether improved or unimproved, and including the value of dwelling-houses, farms, stables and other farm buildings, is approximately \$39 per acre. Last year the average value was returned as \$38.41. By provinces the averages per acre range from \$22.48 in New Brunswick to about \$125 in British Columbia, the values for the other provinces being as follows: Prince Edward Island \$37.64, Nova Scotia \$28, Quebec \$51.36, Ontario \$52.49, Manitoba \$30.36, Saskatchewan \$22.40 and Alberta \$23.15. In British Columbia the higher average is due to orcharding and fruit growing.

It is estimated by the Census and Statistics Office that, in 1915, 18,000 acres of sugar beetroots were grown in Canada, all in Ontario, for the manufacture of beetroot sugar, as compared with 12,100 acres in 1914. The total estimated yield of roots in 1915 was 141,000 tons, as compared with 108,600 tons in 1914, the average yield per acre being 7.83 tons as compared with 8.98 tons in 1914. At an average price of \$5.50 per ton, the total value of the crop in 1915 was \$775,500, as compared with \$5.99 per ton and a total value of \$651,000 in 1914. The production of refined sugar made from Canadian sugar beets grown in 1915 was returned as 36,838,267 lbs. as compared with 27,545,248 lbs. in 1914 and 23,964,272 lbs. in 1913.

A CAREFUL estimate based on such data as is obtainable, made by men at the head of some of the largest business enterprises in Canada, and whose business brings them in very close touch with conditions throughout the Province of Alberta, places the aggregate amount that will be received by the farmers of that province from every branch of husbandry as a result of 1915 operations at not less than 125 million dollars (£25,000,000).

THE Dominion Government, through its department of Agriculture and the Director of the Central Experimental Farm, has been studying the needs and possibilities of the flax-growing industry in Canada. The Government is convinced that there is a market for linseed oil produced from Canadian flax, both in Canada and Great Britain. A good deal of attention has also been given to the growing of flax for production of fibre. The Director of the Central Experimental Farm at Ottawa recommends that a flax division of the Department of Agriculture be established for the purpose of carrying on experiments as to the best methods of cultivating and handling the flax and the varieties best suited to the soil and climate of Canada. It is also suggested that a small but complete plant be erected at the Experimental Farm to separate the fibre from the flax straw. The importance of grading the fibre is urged, and it is also suggested that experts should be obtained from Ireland or Belgium to assist in that part of the work. A bulletin on the subject of flax growing will shortly be printed and distributed.

THE Fish and Game Committee of the Ontario Legislature has decided that the "Market" shooter must be wiped out, and has adopted an amendment to the game laws prohibiting the sale of wild duck, wild geese or any wild water fowl. The object of the law is to prevent the shooting of fowl in great numbers for the purpose of supplying the retail markets. The Committee also adopted an amendment to the present Act prohibiting any non-resident from carrying or shooting with a gun without a license from the Province. Several other amendments to the game laws were also adopted.

LUMBERING conditions throughout Canada are looking up. Mills at Prince Albert are expected to start as soon as the ice is out of the river, and to employ a large number of men in view of the good demand for lumber on the prairies. In British Columbia there is increased activity. Logging camps are opening in many localities. Lumber mills, some of

which were closed in the winter, are becoming busier. The lack of tonnage has prevented many firms from accepting large export orders. Cars for transportation to the prairies are reported more readily available. Box manufacturers in British Columbia are doing well, many plants are working twenty-four hours a day in order to keep up with orders from Great Britain, Australia and the Orient although shortness of freight space is hampering this trade to some extent.

A CONSIDERABLE development of silver-lead mining in the Yukon district is anticipated. Placer gold has hitherto been the great industry of the Yukon. Now, however, mining for galena is being developed. Prospecting for quartz is also in progress. The war has brought the north land more prosperity, prices have advanced considerably. The war has also helped the small operator, giving him a better market and encouraging production. So far, although the Yukon has been doing its share of enlistment, no mines have been closed for lack of men, there being always a certain number going into the mining camps.

LARGE quantities of fish are being imported from Canada to relieve the shortage of this article of food in this country owing to the restricted fishing in the North Sea and to supply the Canadian forces. The fisheries of Nova Scotia alone are not only of vast area, extending over 5,600 miles of the coast-line of the maritime provinces of Canada, but teem with many varieties of fish, including cod, lobster, mackerel and herring. In Nova Scotia the industry employs 30,000 men. A considerable export trade in dried and salted cod has been carried on for many years with the West Indies, but so far there has been no trade with this country in fresh frozen fish. Inquiries, however, have been received from the province as to the prospects of a demand for Nova Scotia fish, and it appears to be an opportune time for this country to avail itself of this prolific source of supply.

SOUTH AFRICA

At a recent meeting of the Johannesburg Chamber of Commerce, the chairman, Mr. E. Chappell, referred to the formation of a sub-committee to consider the trade position that would exist after the war. "Its objects," he said, "are, in the first instance, to consider what can be done to prevent the dumping of goods by the enemy countries to the detriment of the British and also the South African manufacturer; the larger question of considering proposals for the development of British trade will also receive the committee's attention. The future economic policy of every nation in the world will be in the direction of making their country as self-contained as possible. I think that the Imperial policy for which we must strive, with due regard to the interests of our Allies, will be in the direction of a self-contained Empire, and, even if sacrifices have to be made to achieve this end, they will be insignificant as compared with the immense value and importance of the result.

At the annual meeting of the Transvaal Chamber of Mines held in Johannesburg recently the Executive Committee reported that arrangements had been made under which the supply of cyanide, mercury and zinc is assured for the whole of 1916. The possibilities of effecting further economies in the use of these articles had been considered, but, so far, with negative results. A material reduction has been effected in the proportion of higher grade explosives used on the mines, with the result that the amount of glycerine absorbed in producing explosives required for the industry has been considerably reduced. In the opinion of the Committee the industry has reason for congratulation in regard to the matter of supplies.

An interesting report on the subject of Natal fibre from a London firm to the trades commissioner of the Union in London is published in the South African newspapers. It states that the fibre which has been coming forward for the past four or five months has improved in quality and has found a ready sale at good prices. Unfortunately the basis of the freight charges has been altered from weight to measurement, and this has so increased the cost that it is doubtful whether the good prices the fibre fetches will be satisfactory to producers. The quantity of fibre arriving is not large, and it is considered that if shipments of 50 to 100 tons per month were possible, even a higher price than that at present obtainable would be realised.

The total diamond production of the Union of South Africa for 1915 is returned as being 103,385 carats, valued at £399,810; in 1914 the output was 2,801,014 carats, of the value of £5,487,194. Pretoria district last year produced 2,150 carats, value £1,638; river diggings, 33,502 carats, value £126,419; Cape, 66,471 carats, value £266,198; Free State, 1,240 carats, value £5,545. The restricted output for 1915 is, of course, wholly due to the war, which had the effect of practically closing down diamond mining operations in the Union. The labour returns for 1915 show that 26,242 whites and 259,407 coloured people were employed throughout the Union of South Africa in mining operations.

NEW ZEALAND

The Red Cross Society benefits to the extent of no less than £16 a week by an ingenious plan devised by some of the residents of Nelson, one of the small cities of New Zealand. Here what is known as a helping hand shop is opened once a week for the sale of presentation produce, etc., sold (by Red Cross representatives) for the benefit of the Red Cross. Recently the Nelson branch was able to cable £700 to the present organisation in London.

The New Zealand Society of Accountants has formulated a scheme which is expected to produce excellent results in the direction of providing free clerical training for those returned soldiers who, through the exigencies of the war, have been incapacitated from pursuing their ordinary employment.

A REMARKABLE monument set up as a tribute from Maoris to the Maoris and pakehas (white New Zealanders) who have fallen in the war, was unveiled recently in the Mangonui County, by the Minister for Defence. The inscription is typically Maori. "In loving memory, and in honour of our sons and relations, both Maori and pakeha, dead or living, from the County of Mangonui, who willingly offered themselves to sacrifice their lives to uphold the honour of the King and Empire and for the glory of God in this terrible war, which began in Europe and has since spread over the greater part of the world. Splashing through the mountainous waves of the Indian Ocean, our brave lads uphold the names of your noble ancestors, and seek to avenge the deaths of your relations who have fallen. God will give victory to the righteous."

THE Travellers' and Warehousemen's Association at its annual conference held some few weeks ago decided to constitute an All for Empire League, one of the principal objects of which is the elimination of German trade within the Empire, by means of a prohibitive tariff, and increased shipping dues on all German or present enemy vessels visiting New Zealand ports.

It has been decided by the Public Service Commissioner that girls shall be eligible to compete at the Public Service entrance examination this year. Each candidate is required to pay a fee of £1, which will be refunded if she is successful and accepts an appointment offered.

THE population of the Dominion of New Zealand on December 31 (exclusive of Maoris and Islanders) was 1,102,825. There was an increase of 17,916 by excess of births over deaths, and a decrease of 11,085 by excess of emigration over immigration. The members of the Expeditionary Forces are included in the immigration figures. The total population, including Maoris (49,844) and Islanders (12,598) was 1,165,267.

A most unusual and highly impressive sight was witnessed at a Maori tangi (ancient native funeral ceremony) held in a North Island town recently, when a half-caste chief Taipari—otherwise, being partly of Scottish descent, Hone Makarataoti (John M'Leod)—was buried. The funeral party was accompanied by two pipers, and the proceedings were a combination of ancient Scottish and ancient Maori fashions, the pipers marching first and playing Scotch dirges, and the Maoris, later, making the long and eloquent orations for which they are famed.

THE Prime Minister of the Dominion, interviewed in Auckland recently, said that in no part of the British Empire occupied by Europeans was the cost of living so low as in New Zealand. So far, he said, no serious pinch had been felt. The aim of the Government had been to keep the country prosperous, and to see that if the people had to pay more for their commodities they were in a position to do so.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

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MEMORIES OF LORD KITCHENER

I

AS I KNEW HIM

An address delivered by Lord Desborough at a Memorial Service to Lord Kitchener at the Canadian Red Cross Hospital at Cliveden on Sunday, June 11.

AT request of your Chaplain I have come to say a few words to men wounded in this terrible war about one who was the commanding British figure in this war. In his public life what struck one most was his personality; wherever he went throughout the Empire, Egypt, the Dominions, India, Egypt again, he at once became the dominating figure for friends and foes alike—and something great always happened. This was due to the mysterious foresight he possessed, his realisation of great ends, and the unflinching methods with which he sought to gain those ends. Abroad, during this war, he may be said to have stood for British Military Power in the minds of our Allies and our enemies. But I have not come here to talk of his public life, but to say a few words to you of Kitchener as I knew him, as a friend.

He was many times in this range of woods. I came to know him through my brother in the 10th Hussars who, more than thirty years ago, shared a tent with him in Egypt—they were both attached to the Egyptian Army—and he brought him to Taplow, and our friendship was only ended on earth on Monday last. I remember my brother saying that Kitchener was always working, up at sunrise drilling his men, and learning Arabic, of which he knew even the dialects; and he was known then to be a man who would do something in the world.

After that whenever he came back from his various undertakings he always came to Taplow for his first Sunday. And I

remember on one of these occasions (it was after the capture of Khartoum, and we had put up an arch for him with "Welcome" on it), his saying to me, "*When I come here I feel like coming home: I have no home.*" His loneliness always struck me as pathetic, though he always had a most devoted staff and personal friends. Of late years he was making a home in Kent, where he intended to put all his objects of Art from the East.

When I first knew him he was a most striking figure, tall, spare, with the most wonderful, piercing, bright blue eyes set very far apart. His eyes were what he called "burnt out" afterwards. He was doing a desert ride with a Bedouin Arab tribe with whom he was "blood-brother," and the sun off the sand in their long ride on camels, like sun off snow, nearly ruined his eyes. I asked him why he did not wear coloured glasses, but he said a blood-brother of an Arab tribe could not wear glasses.

Another physical calamity befell him when his horse fell on him while he was riding alone in India. Some natives saw the accident, but were too terrified to go near him; at last they summoned up courage to bring the news that the "Lord-of-War" as they called him was lying seriously hurt. He suffered much from his broken leg afterwards. Indeed when he came back from India he determined to get his leg broken and set again, but he could not find a surgeon who would do it, and this was one of the few occasions on which he did not get his way. The feelings of the natives of India were shared by those in Africa.

On the field of Omdurman I met one native who had been through the advance up the Nile; he said Kitchener never slept, and appeared when least expected among every unit of the Force, and his spirit pervaded the whole.

I would like to read you an impression of Lord Kitchener which was written by my eldest son, Julian Grenfell, at the age of 14, in the Autumn of 1902:—

"The first time I saw Lord Kitchener was before the South African War. I had come home for the holidays, and the first morning I got up before breakfast, and on going downstairs found a gentleman whom I did not know at all. He asked me to come for a walk, and we went for over an hour. He found out that I was to be a soldier, and asked me what regiment I was going in for, and how I was getting on at school, and a great many other questions; he told me a great many things about the army, and yet he never mentioned himself at all, and I had not the least idea who he was. I enjoyed the walk very much indeed, and when afterwards I was told who he was I was not at all surprised.

"It was easy to see that he was no civilian; he looked a soldier from head to foot, and there was something about his manner

that showed me that he was no ordinary man, and yet he said nothing about himself or his own doings. He spoke in a way that showed me he meant what he said, and it was easy to see that he was used to being obeyed. I think that on seeing him for the first time one would feel an impulse to say, 'That is a man who would never leave what he had once resolved upon till he finished it to his satisfaction.' I should think it would be impossible to find features on which self-restraint and tremendous will are more clearly marked.

"Once again when he was at Taplow later on I asked him about South Africa. He told me everything without the slightest 'swagger' or self-praise; in fact, I think modesty is one of his greatest qualities. He said he was very glad to get back to England again, when I had the good fortune to see him on 'long-leave' in this summer half. He looked just the same as before the war, except that he was a little more sunburnt. He said that he wondered what the Boers would think of our life over here in the summer going lazily on the river in boats and lounging about all day, and he said that they 'did not look at life that way.' Whatever was going on he seemed to pay the greatest attention to it even if it was not of the slightest importance.

"He saw me catch a pike once, which got into a deep bed of weeds and took a very long time to land, and proposed that we should get up early next morning and see if we could have any luck. The next morning there was a high wind and frequent showers of rain, an ideal day for fishing, but one when most people would prefer to be in bed. He was dressed before the time, and came into my room when I was still in bed. We managed to land two nice fish that morning, and Lord Kitchener seemed very pleased; while he could not help laughing as he slipped the landing-net under the biggest we had yet seen and it gave a sharp turn, made a frantic rush, and broke the line.

"Lord Kitchener cannot stand two things—public dinners and being photographed.

"I think it would be very hard to find a man in whom there is so much will and so much ability to carry it into execution, and who in addition is so modest, so interested, and so clever and amusing."

This account by a boy of fourteen shows, I think, that Lord Kitchener was not in private life the stern, unbending sphinx of popular imagination. Indeed no one to his friends was a more encouraging and stimulating companion; when alone with you he was very talkative, and his curious humour and his quaint summing up of individuals and situations was an unfailing source of interest and surprise. He was absolutely unaffected, and had

an ingrained distaste of popular demonstrations, speechifying, and banquets.

I will read you just one letter from Lord Kitchener written by him in the middle of the Boer War to my boys:—

KRONSTADT. 13th May, 1900.

MY DEAR JULIAN AND BILLY,—

Many thanks for your letters which caught me up on the march here, and I read them while our guns were pounding away at the Boers who were sitting up on some hills trying to prevent our advance. However, they soon cleared out and ran before we could get round them. I wish we could have caught some of their guns, but they are remarkably quick at getting them away, and we have only been able to take one maxim up to the present.

Sooner or later we are bound to catch them, but they give a lot of trouble. The Boers are not like the Soudanese who stood up for a fair fight, they are always running away on their little ponies. We make the prisoners we take march on foot which they do not like at all.

There are a good many foreigners amongst the Boers, but they are easily shot, as they do not slink about like the Boers themselves. We killed a German colonel yesterday.

Now I must get back to work, so goodbye.

Mind you work hard.

Your affectionate friend,

KITCHENER.

Children accepted him as a natural friend. I remember my little girl once meeting us, as we came in for tea from a walk, outside the tea room (she was, I may say, his god-daughter), and she immediately said to the great Lord Kitchener, "Don't go in there, they are making such a *chatter*; come up and have tea with me," and up he went right to the top of the house, with his lame leg, and sat down with Imogen* and her nurse and had a long talk. I hope you do not think these matters trivial: I think in making a true estimate of Lord Kitchener as a man and not as an institution they are not unimportant.

There is one short story about him and the army which I think I may tell, as it helps you to understand him: a high staff officer, who has now a command, came to see him from the front, and he put searching questions to him about munitions, and then he said, "I hope the army does not think I have let them down," and two large tears rolled down from his stern eyes. The munitions difficulty was part of our unpreparedness for war: the contractors undertook to carry out contracts, but owing in a great measure to their best men leaving for the front they found

* Lord Desborough's daughter.—Ed.

themselves unable to do so, and Lord Kitchener had terrible disappointments.

And now for one moment let us turn our thoughts to the passing away of a great man and a great soldier. Men discuss this great question of passing away but little, and seldom say what their convictions are, and Lord Kitchener would have been the last to do so, but there is a passage in an intimate letter which I think indicates his feelings. Nothing struck me more in visiting the many hospitals abroad than the spirit in which officers and men faced death, and the fervent confidence they had in the life to come. This to me is the most remarkable feature of the war; the true religious confidence underlying both officers and men: it is so well expressed in a letter from my son Billy who lies at Hooze, where your men are gallantly facing and meeting death now, that I will read it; it is about his elder brother Julian whom he saw lying mortally wounded in hospital at Boulogne.

"I feel so strongly, as you know, the littleness of our life here and the nothingness of death, that Julian seems more vivid and valiant, and his influence more uplifting and inspiring even than before. The passage between the two worlds is crossed so gallantly and gaily by hundreds every day out here, it seems a gateway not a barrier, and a path, I know, to joy and freedom.

"It was sad to see his dear delightful head brought so low, but I really do feel the most complete confidence and trust. What does it matter if the trumpets sound for him on this side or the other?"

It would be impossible to add anything to this, but I will quote the passage I referred to from a private letter from Lord Kitchener, written in a time of sorrow, which uses almost the same words,

"We all wish sometimes that the trumpet would sound for us, but we have to stick it out and do our very best until the release comes. I only wish that I could do more, or rather that what I do was better work."

Work was the keynote of Lord Kitchener's life, and work is the legacy he leaves to us. Amusements as such did not amuse him; his aim was always to get something big accomplished, and he accomplished it. And now he is gone, and it feels, as I have seen it described, "like Nelson's Column falling—something national, almost symbolic gone"; but his work and his example remain, and, if it had to be, I hope he may lie where he is with a British warship for his coffin.

DESBOROUGH.

II

AS A SOLDIER

Tribute paid to Lord Kitchener's memory by Lord French in the House of Lords rearranged in article form.

As Commander-in-Chief of the Army in France my relation with the late Secretary of State for War was constant, and I am anxious to place on record that no effort was ever spared by him to supply all my demands.

I knew well the difficulties which lay in his way, not only in providing the necessary men and material for the Expeditionary Force in a war which was not of our seeking and which has increased to quite unexpected magnitude, but also in the immediate and colossal expansion which the military forces have necessarily undergone.

Lord Kitchener faced these difficulties with characteristic determination, and the evidence of the debt which the nation owes him is to be found in the magnificent armies which are now defending our interests all over the world.

It would be idle to pretend that in the past two years I have always seen eye to eye with the great Field-Marshal who has been taken from us, but such divergence of opinion as occurred in no way interfered with the national interests, nor did it ever shake my confidence in Lord Kitchener's will, power, and ability, to meet the heavy demands I had to make upon him. Many can speak with much greater eloquence and much greater authority of Lord Kitchener as a Cabinet Minister. Personally I prefer to keep him always in my mind as the great and glorious soldier which I knew him to be.

For nearly three years in the South African War I was closely associated with him and enjoyed his intimate friendship and confidence.

As Commander of the Cavalry Division during the first part of that war I shall never forget the help I derived from his invaluable counsel and support when he was Chief of the Staff to Lord Roberts, but it was after he came to assume the Chief Command and I occupied a post of considerable responsibility under him that I learnt his value as a Commander in the Field and a leader of men.

He inspired us all with the utmost confidence; we relied implicitly upon him to lead us to victory; we knew we were assured of his utmost help and support in trouble and difficulty, and that he would give us the fullest measure of credit in success. I am very fortunate in the possession of many of his private letters, and I could quote numerous examples of the truth of what I say.

At that time and during subsequent years I became so impressed by his great qualities, and my estimate of him was so high, that when at the outbreak of the present war I had reason to believe that I had been selected for the Chief Command in the Field, I went to Lord Kitchener very early one morning and urged him to see the Prime Minister and endeavour to arrange that he himself should take the place, and that I should accompany him as his Chief of the Staff. Although at that moment he had no idea of taking over the position of Secretary of State for War, I could not prevail upon him to do this.

The nation has indeed suffered a grievous loss, and the finest monument they can erect to this great man's memory is to clothe themselves in the spirit of determination and concentration of effort which characterised his long and valuable public career.

FRENCH.

III

AS A FRIEND

Tribute paid to Lord Kitchener's memory by Lord Derby in the House of Lords rearranged in article form.

IN the few words that follow I am not speaking of Lord Kitchener the Field-Marshal, of Lord Kitchener the administrator. I speak only of Kitchener—"K" as we called him—of Kitchener, the best friend I ever had. I had known him for many years. Our acquaintance ripened in South Africa, and during the past few months I do not think anybody had been in closer touch with him than I was. I saw him in a light that very few people did see him in—a light which the public as a whole hardly realised existed. He was supposed to be hard, taciturn, stern by the general public. I never knew a worse estimate of a man's character than that. Lord Kitchener was shy, more shy than people imagined, and diffident always about himself.

One little incident I should like to recall. It must have been about fifteen months ago. I saw him in his room in the War Office, and he said to me, "I wish you could tell me what I am doing wrong." When I expressed my surprise he said, "I feel there is something I ought to be doing. There is something more I ought to do for the country. I am doing all that I can, and yet I feel that I am still leaving much undone." He was a man who inspired the greatest possible affection among his friends. One particular friendship which stands out in Lord Kitchener's life—the friendship of Colonel FitzGerald, his private secretary. If ever a man gave up the whole of his life to the service of another, Colonel FitzGerald

was a man who gave it up to Lord Kitchener. If we may doubt or question whether Lord Kitchener's end was what he would have himself hoped for, there is one thing that is absolutely certain, and that is that Colonel FitzGerald met the death he would have asked for, side by side with the man he had served so faithfully throughout his military career.

When I look back upon my friendship with Lord Kitchener, curiously enough the days that come back best to my memory, and always will come back best to my memory, are two days in the last week of his life. Less than a week before he died I had been dining alone with him, and after dinner he talked, not of the war, but of all those matters which interested him so much in his private life—of Broome, the place to which he was so devoted; of his china; of his life after the war; and of his trip to Russia, which he was looking forward to with the keenness of a schoolboy going for a holiday. That is a talk I shall never forget. Then, three days later, came that meeting with members of the House of Commons, at which I was privileged to be present.

I was also present when the suggestion was made to him that he should meet the members of the House of Commons. There was no indecision whatever as to what his answer should be. The moment it was proposed he at once said that, of course, he would meet them. But with that singular gift that he had, although no Parliamentary, of often seeing what might be said in Parliament, he made it a condition that he would not meet the members of the House of Commons until after his salary had been discussed, because, as he said, "I am not going to be told that I attempt to burke discussion." I was present at that meeting, and I will candidly confess that, although I had no doubt in my own mind as to the great value of such a meeting, I did have some doubt as to how far he, a non-Parliamentary, would be able to deal with the questions that all of us who have been conversant with election matters know to a certain extent how to deal with. I need not have been doubtful. I might have known him better. That meeting has been kept strictly secret, and I am not going for one minute to break the veil of secrecy; but I think I can say without hesitation that when he left that room, where there had been over two hundred Members of Parliament questioning him for a considerable time, he left behind him a feeling with regard to himself amongst those members which anybody in any position might be proud to possess.

Little did we realise then that he was really writing the last chapter of a busy life. It is almost unbelievable how complete was his good-bye to this nation. He said good-bye then to the

nation through its representatives. He said good-bye to his King; the next day good-bye to his beloved Broome; and the following day to Sir John Jellicoe and the Grand Fleet; and then came the end. Let me say that there was no kind of a presentiment. I only mention these facts because I feel that, as in the case of his great military chief, Lord Roberts, the end was really the one that he would have wished for. Lord Roberts died after visiting his beloved Indian troops, within sound of the guns. Lord Kitchener said good-bye to the nation at a moment when he left the whole of the machinery of the great Armies that he created in running order, and when it only required skilled engineers to keep going his work. It was really as if Providence in its wisdom had given him the rest which he never would have given to himself. With the memory of a great naval battle fresh in our minds we must all realise how rich a harvest of death the sea has reaped. We in these isles from time immemorial have paid a heavy toll to the sea for our insular security; but speaking as the friend of a friend, I can say that the sea never exacted a heavier toll than when Lord Kitchener, confined in a British man-of-war, passed to the Great Beyond.

DERBY.

HIS WORK IN AUSTRALIA

This article, written very shortly after Lord Kitchener had issued his report on the military forces of Australia early in the year 1910, is reproduced from the pages of the *EMPIRE REVIEW* of that date. It affords a striking insight into the great part taken by the late Secretary of State for War in moulding the Australian army. Little did the author of a scheme involving the raising of a citizen force numbering 80,000 men imagine that before the period arrived when his scheme was due to mature Australia would have enlisted an army of 300,000 men, half of whom are now engaged in fighting the most highly organised military force in the world.

LORD KITCHENER'S report is, of necessity, but a cursory study of existing conditions in regard to Australian defence, the document is nevertheless a masterly synopsis of those conditions, and embodies an equally masterly series of suggestions for their improvement. Of barren negative criticism there is little. Content with recording an emphatic opinion as to the inadequacy of the Commonwealth's present defensive preparations, the field-marshal devotes by far the greater portion of his remarks to the more profitable subject of remedying the existing deficiencies.

The report is a masterpiece both of condensation and of amplitude. Each sentence has a direct bearing on the matter in hand, and all necessary details are noted. When it is remem-

bered that the distinguished visitor only landed on Australian soil at Port Darwin on December 21,* and that, in spite of the fact that the period of his visit embraced the most trying weeks of the year, he contrived in the space of less than two months to attend military camps in each of the six separate States, as far apart in some cases as London is from Constantinople, to inspect the fortifications of all the leading seaports, and to draw up a report of considerable length and complexity, one cannot but admire the marvellous activity shown. Indeed, Lord Kitchener's recent tour suggests the concentrated energy of a Savarov or a Napoleon.

In the introduction to his report Lord Kitchener gracefully thanks the various officials who did so much to expedite his investigations, and compliments Australia on the "excellent material" for defence provided by her young manhood, and on the "great keenness" shown by the troops in carrying out their military duties. But while expressing the highest approval of the intrinsic quality of the Australian soldier, he adds a warning whose justification is to be found in every page of modern history. "In these days, however excellent, fighting material and the greatest zeal, though indispensable adjuncts, are not of themselves sufficient to enable a force to take the field against thoroughly trained troops with any chance of success." In other words, scientific warfare requires scientific preparation, and in respect to the latter Lord Kitchener perceives Australia's chief weakness.

Impetuosity is a characteristic of youth in nations as in individuals. The current is most vehement near the source of the stream. The Field-Marshal emphasises this familiar truth in calling attention to "a distinct tendency to go too fast and neglect essential preliminaries of training for more advanced studies which the troops engaged were not capable of carrying out properly." This "tendency to go too fast" is not, perhaps, confined to military matters in Australia. Still, over-eagerness is a fault on the right side, for it bespeaks energy and initiative.

An impressive warning, repeated again and again of late years, is conveyed in a latter passage of the introductory observations referring to Australia's vital need—men. "The danger of want of population and consequent ineffective occupation in many parts of the country, is, in my opinion, a most serious existing condition in Australia, as it may greatly imperil the stability of the present state of affairs in the Commonwealth." It is well that the very root of Australia's present insecurity should again be exposed. Armies and the revenues necessary to support them cannot be raised without men. The condition of the Northern

Territory probably struck Lord Kitchener's attention with particular force. This vast region embraces 523,620 square miles of land, and lies close to Asia, the most populous of the continents. At present it contains, exclusive of the aborigines, barely one thousand white people and about twice as many Chinese. It lacks railway communication with the settled parts of Australia, and is completely isolated from them. Its magnificent harbour, Port Darwin, accessible to the largest vessels afloat, and constituting the natural gateway to tropical Australia, lies, save for the British Fleet, absolutely defenceless. Behind it extend millions of acres of fertile plains never yet tilled, and never likely to be cultivated by white hands. Practically no industry flourishes in a region which could support myriads of agriculturists and operatives. Such have been the fruits of a "White Australia" policy pursued now for more than fifty years. Such must continue to be its fruits.

The lack of railway communication between the northern and western parts of Australia on the one hand, and the southern and eastern on the other, was naturally noticed by Lord Kitchener. Defects from a strategic point of view such as want of uniformity of gauge are particularly pointed out as prejudicial to the rapid mobilisation of troops. "That railway construction has, while developing the country, resulted in lines that would appear to be more favourable to an enemy invading Australia than to the defence of the country" is by no means reassuring. The recommendation is made that a War Railway Council similar to that existing in the United Kingdom should be constituted; and no doubt, assisted by such a body, the Commonwealth and various State Governments, in planning and executing future railway works, will endeavour so far as possible to satisfy strategic as well as commercial needs, and where these are irreconcilable, to give the public safety precedence over the public convenience.

Lord Kitchener's final opinion of Australia's present military position is summed up with remarkable terseness and lucidity. "The conclusion I have come to shortly is, that the present forces are inadequate in numbers, training, organisation, and munitions of war, to defend Australia from the dangers that are due to the present conditions that prevail in the country, as well as to its isolated position." Among "the present conditions" so gently hinted at the Field-Marshal undoubtedly included the continued assertion of Australia's Monroe Doctrine, which must be regarded as a standing challenge by all coloured races. The liabilities its maintenance must impose on the white inhabitants of the continent are too obvious to be ignored. The gateways of an unoccupied Garden of Eden can only be guarded by the sword.

After the introductory remarks just summarised, Lord Kitchener proceeds to offer his formal recommendations with a view to the remedying of the defects in the Australian military system observed by him. These recommendations are of an eminently practical character, and are based, not on considerations of theoretical perfection, but on actual possibilities. It were far easier, the merest novice can see, to devise a satisfactory scheme of defence for a small country with a large population than for a very large country with a very small population. The problem in Australia is complicated by the virtual emptiness of the most vulnerable regions, while districts of less strategic importance are almost overcrowded. Financial conditions, too, could not be disregarded.

It were idle for a medical adviser to prescribe for an impecunious patient a prolonged stay at some fashionable and expensive health resort. Lord Kitchener's vast experience as a practical administrator made him sensible of these limitations, and he was careful to cut Australia's coat of mail according to the quantity of material at hand. Premising that, while the Commonwealth's defence still depends primarily on the British Navy, a contingency might arise when the Imperial naval forces would be in a position of temporary inferiority to some actual or potential enemy in certain parts of the world, he urges that it is the duty of all self-governing Dominions "to provide a military force adequate not only to deal promptly with any attempt at invasion, but also to ensure local safety and public confidence until our superiority at sea has been decisively and comprehensively asserted." It is important to notice that the report and recommendations it embodies are based on the assumption that in the end, whatever enemy, or coalition of enemies, the British Empire might have to confront, the Navy would ultimately prove victorious. No British citizen would wish to believe otherwise, but if our maritime supremacy is to remain unimpaired, the Imperial Navy must be supported by the whole Empire; and not merely, as hitherto, by the inhabitants of barely one-hundredth part of its surface.

Subject to the important condition stated, the scheme proposed is briefly as follows. Out of the 4,275,000 people now inhabiting the Commonwealth, Lord Kitchener estimates that 1,295,000 consist of "males of a fighting age." These, he thinks, should provide sufficient material for an army of a total strength of 80,000 men, one half to be available as a mobile striking force, and the remainder to undertake garrison duty in the various important cities and seaports, assisted, no doubt, by the reserves. The proposed organisation will include 21 brigades of 4 battalions each of infantry, 28 regiments of light horse, 49 four-gun field batteries, 7 four-gun heavy and howitzer batteries,

the artillery numbering 224 guns in all, 7 communication companies, and 14 field companies of engineers, with the proportionate allowance of departmental troops to each arm. The annual cost in the seventh year, when the scheme proposed, if adopted, will be in full operation, is estimated at £1,884,000, a sum only slightly in excess of the £1,742,000 allowed by the late Defence Act. In principle, the difference between the two schemes is that, whereas the one recently sanctioned appears intended to provide quantity of fighting material, Lord Kitchener aims rather at quality.

With the elaborate technical recommendations relating to machinery and organisation it is not proposed to deal here, these are matters rather for the military expert than the general reader. The suggested methods of enrolment and training of Australia's future defenders may, however, be briefly referred to. In regard to the former, Lord Kitchener recommends the division of the settled portions of the continent into 215 areas, each under the charge of a special officer suitably qualified for his work and responsible for the efficient training of the unit under his control. The necessity for a period of active training each year considerably longer than that now required is strongly urged, and its extension to the attainment of his twenty-fifth year by each soldier is also recommended. On reaching the age of twenty-six the ordinary soldier's military education will be considered finished, and he will enter the reserve as provided by clause 60 of the Defence Act. Thus commencing as a junior cadet at the age of twelve, each future defender of the Commonwealth will undergo a course of training extending over fourteen years.*

The vital importance of bestowing a thorough training on all future officers is insisted on with peculiar force. A military college established at some convenient centre, and modelled largely on the famous American establishment at West Point, is the keystone of the whole scheme. The maintenance of the college will involve a yearly charge estimated at about £15,000, and the institution will be the nursery of a Staff Corps consisting of 350 thoroughly trained officers, the brain of the future Australian Army. Taking twenty years as the average service for each, and allowing for wastage, the proposed college will have to turn out eighteen officers each year out of its total complement of 100 cadets. The minimum period of training is fixed at three years, and a staff consisting of a director, twelve instructors and assistants and two clerks is to manage the establishment. The

* The training required by law, over and above home training, would then stand—for junior cadets, 12 to 14 years, 120 hours; for senior cadets, 14 to 18 years, equivalent to 16 days; recruit training, 18 to 19 years—16 days, 8 of which to be in camp; trained soldiers, 19 to 20 years—16 days, 8 of which to be in camp; 20 to 25 years, 6 days in camp; 25 to 26 years, muster parade only.

Staff Corps, when complete, will include 190 lieutenants, ninety captains, fifty majors, thirteen lieutenant-colonels and seven colonels. These officers, it is wisely recommended, from time to time "should be sent abroad to study, and be attached to the other land forces of the British Empire, so that an officer of this staff corps would be equal if not superior in military education, to the officers of any army in the world." The free interchange of Imperial officers, both naval and military, would not only promote efficiency, but also strengthen the sentiment of Imperial unity.

But while recommending an extended period for the men, and a thoroughly scientific course of military education for their officers, Lord Kitchener strongly impresses on the minds of the Australian public that on them rests the chief responsibility for the success of the scheme. No skill of plan, no perfection of detail, will suffice to render effective any military machine that human genius could devise if the right spirit be wanting in the people for whose protection the national army exists. In eloquent words Lord Kitchener reiterates truths which are familiar indeed to all leaders of men both in thought and action; but which modern democracy is too apt to ignore. "The first and imperative principle for the enrolment and maintenance of these 80,000 men as an efficient citizen force is that the nation as a whole should take a pride in its defenders, insist upon the organisation being real and designed for war purposes only, and provide the means for properly educating, training and equipping their officers and men." The nation, then, must stand behind the army. Moral force must lend its inspiring aid to physical.

Politics in the military sphere must be non-existent. The election of any officer to Parliament should, Lord Kitchener holds, necessitate his retirement from the force, as in the days of Cromwell. "Political feeling in an army," he observes, "is always a serious drawback to efficiency, and may become a danger to the State." The warning conveyed has been justified on numerous occasions within the last century, especially among the South American Republics. "The force must be an integral portion of the national life. The citizen should be brought up from boyhood to look forward to the day when he will be enrolled as fit to defend his country; and he should be accustomed to practise those habits of self-denial, of devotion to and emulation in the execution of his duty, of reticence and of prompt obedience to lawful authority, which are essential to the formation of patriotic and efficient citizen soldiers." Those words ably epitomise the whole code of soldierly duty.

Patriotism and courage are dominant virtues among the Australian masses, irrespective of party attachments; and except-

ing a quite insignificant, though rather vociferous, handful of pacifists, each Australian citizen knows that an empty land is always an imperilled land, and that the inevitable corollary to a "White Australia" must be an armed Australia. He is also more tardily beginning to recognise that, as armies need men and revenues to support them, an increased population is of paramount importance. In short, the full cradle and the full immigrant ship are just as necessary to Australia's future security as the trained soldier and the vessel of war.

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

IN MEMORIAM

Lines suggested by the sinking of H.M.S. "Hampshire."

IN the wild welter of the raging sea
The stricken ship lay helpless, tempest-tossed;
In such a storm no rescue could there be,
And quickly every hope of aid was lost.
The shock was sudden; few, in truth, could tell,
In those tense moments, how it came, and whence;
But each and all had served Great Britain well,
Ready were they to die in her defence.

One, standing there so calm and undismayed,
Had led our legions in the sternest strife;
Now, as those angry waters he surveyed,
He knew the call had come to give his life.
What then? It was for Britain, and his heart
Was ever hers, to serve in weal or woe;
His was no coward-soul to shun the noblest part:
He would meet death calmly, and gladly so.

A Builder of our Empire, too, was he,
And a commanding figure in the East;
He strove to keep his loved Land great and free,
And his abounding care for her ne'er ceased.
Kitchener—a name to conjure with—brought
To Britain's Standard many dauntless bands
Who, in this war, for her have nobly fought,
And who will guard her Isles and wide-spread Lands.

Thus, then, was set the crown on the career
Of one who had been single in his aim,
The thought of whom inspired our foes with fear:
Death took him at the zenith of his fame.
We'll steel our hearts, and set ourselves to fight
With brave endurance to the very end;
"God's in His Heaven," He upholds the Right,
And He a great deliverance will send.

ROBEY F. ELDRIDGE.

CHANGING THE FABRIC

I.

MR. HUGHES AND HIS SPEECHES

No one who listened to Mr. Hughes' speeches during his recent visit to this country will hesitate to acknowledge that he is a great man. More than that, he stands for a great cause and a great policy, the cause of unity and the policy of Empire. His incisive method of speaking, his forceful style of expression and his natural modesty won for him a success which few men have achieved in so short a period. Organisation, not insular but imperial, is the keynote of his oratory, action the breath of his nostrils. Procrastination to him is anathema. To-day and not to-morrow is his motto.

Coming amongst us in the midst of a great war, he brought to our councils fresh thoughts and new ideas. As the head of the most democratic government in the world, he cannot be said to have any leanings towards conservative views, while as the leader in Australia of organised labour he understands and appreciates to the full the wants and requirements of the working classes. Freedom and liberty are to him as they are to us, the guiding spirit of national life. Something worth living for, something worth fighting for. He knows, as we know, that if Britain goes down in this struggle the British Empire goes down too, and like a true patriot he is determined, cost what it may, to leave no stone unturned to aid and assist the Motherland in bringing this terrible war to a successful and triumphant conclusion.

But intent as Mr. Hughes is on winning the war, he wishes to know, what so many of us wish to know, what is to be the policy of this country towards those great economic problems which must inevitably arise as soon as peace is proclaimed. Are we going on in the same haphazard way as in pre-war days, or are we "to have a policy that will make the word 'Empire' mean something more than it has meant hitherto?"

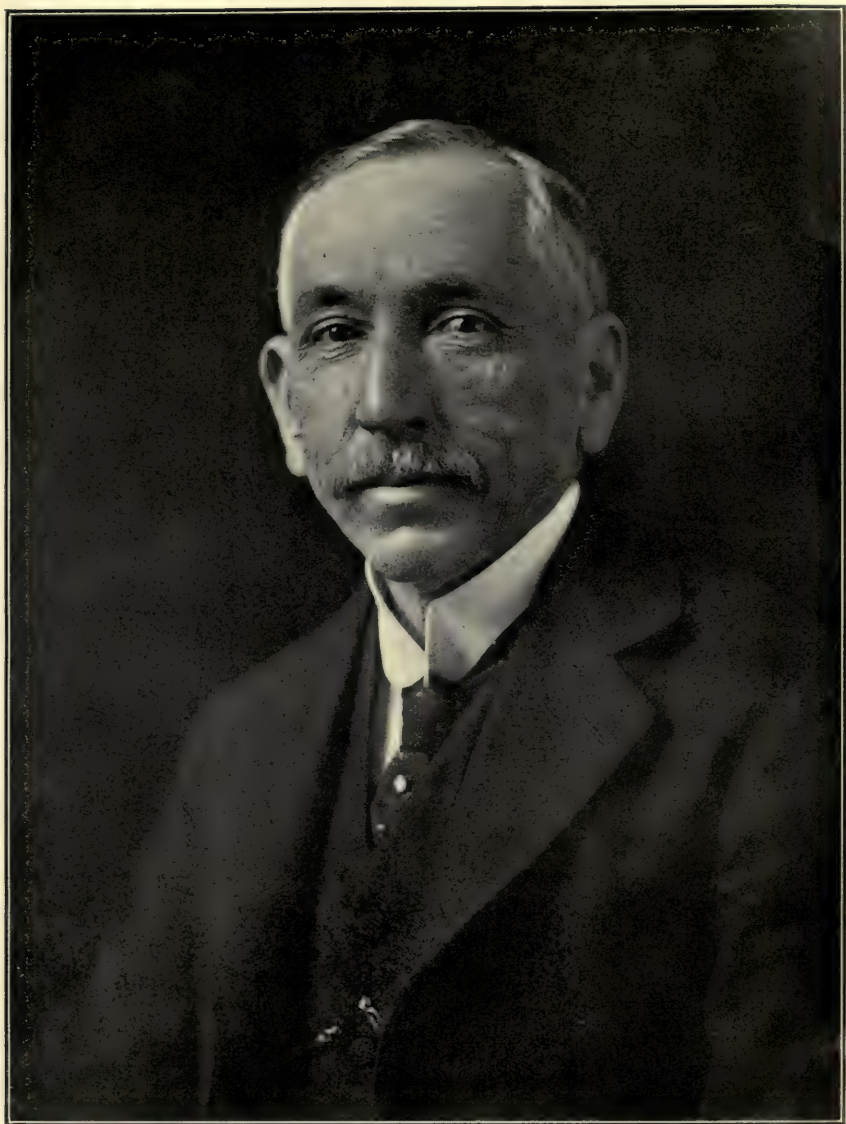


Photo Elliott & Fry.

Wm. Hughes

An Imperialist in its widest and truest meaning, he is anxious to see the future trade of the British Empire placed on a sound and permanent footing, and he thinks, and rightly thinks, that the lines of that policy should be settled without delay. "The producers of Britain and the Empire should be told, and told now, what the trade policy of Britain after the war is going to be, so that they can make their arrangements accordingly; if we are to attack this question effectively there must be organisation. We must attack it systematically and scientifically." Our existence depends "not only on our naval but on our industrial supremacy." That being so, we must exploit every opportunity, develop every resource. Above all, "we must see that our industries are not dependent upon the raw materials which our potential or actual enemies control."

In future we must be a self-contained Empire not alone in name but in being. As Mr. Hughes very truly says, not only must we think Imperially, we must act Imperially. "We have the means at our disposal, and we can cement for ever a Federation—Empire—call it what you will—that will ensure the peace of the world." Let us then do it, and do it without delay.

Mr. Hughes' speeches have gone right home to the hearts of the British people, and he leaves behind him a memory and a record of which both Australia and himself may well be proud.

II.

A COUNCIL OF EMPIRE

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN never admonished his countrymen more wisely than when he bade them think Imperially. With equal advantage, the same admonition might have been addressed to the self-governing communities overseas. For insular ideas and prejudices exercise the same influence in the Daughter States as in the Motherland. If we are to continue to retain our position in the world when the war is over, these drawbacks to unity must be abandoned and the Empire as a whole brought to realise the true spirit of Imperialism. Downing Street and the Dominions must come together as they have never done before. An entirely new order of things must arise—one that embraces in every phase of policy not domestic in origin the recognition, and the fullest recognition, of the vital principle of Empire.

What, then, is Imperialism? Is it merely an abstract phrase, or has it a meaning generally recognised and widely appreciated?

Purists describe it as the "system of Imperial government." Assuming this definition to be accurate in conception and allowing that Imperial government represents "government pertaining to Empire," it follows by the ordinary rules of sequence that the words "Empire" and "Imperial" are synonymous terms. Yet in Parliamentary papers, where one naturally looks for enlightenment in matters of this kind, the word "Imperial" is used not as an alternative for "Empire," but to differentiate between the operations of the Home and Dominion Governments; and especially is this noticeable in the official reports of the proceedings of the Imperial Conference. Instead of the two expressions being, as they should be, identical and interchangeable, the one signifies a whole, the other a part. Even the Imperial Parliament, which should be, and nominally is, the Parliament of the Empire, is in reality and in practice only the Parliament of the United Kingdom. In short, we have in being no Parliament of the Empire—an omission in our Constitution which retards the cause of Imperial unity and prevents the realisation of the true spirit of Imperialism.

It was otherwise at the time of the Union. Then the Imperial Parliament, both in name and in being, was an Empire Parliament. All government emanated directly from the Parliament at Westminster, which alone possessed legislative powers within the Empire. But much water has flowed under the bridge of time since that event, and the Empire of to-day differs very materially from the Empire as it was then. Moreover, instead of the Imperial Power advancing with the progress of our oversea possessions, it has declined, and, except in matters involving the Empire's relation with foreign States, the self-governing Dominions are virtually supreme. Even commercial treaties which bind the United Kingdom no longer, of necessity, bind the Dominions, while the King's veto, although still retained, is never exercised. Proud as the oversea communities are of their British connection, a feeling of nationality and independence has grown up among them, and in considering questions of Empire that feeling cannot and must not be ignored.

I do not, of course, refer to separation—always an empty cry, and one more so now than ever. Successive generations of colonists have ever desired to remain under the sovereignty of the King-Emperor, and this feeling of loyalty and devotion to the Throne has become intensified by the war, in which the Dominions have so nobly and so gallantly borne their part. In urging, therefore, the cause of Imperialism and Imperial unity, I do so not because I fear separation, but because I want to see greater strength. And if this be our objective, as, indeed, it must be, steps will have to be taken, and taken without delay, to rearrange

the governance of the Empire in such a manner as will give, both to the Dominions and to India, a direct say in the solution of Imperial as apart from local affairs. The main question, then, that lies before us is how best to secure this end with as little dislocation as possible.

Many year ago there was in existence an organisation called the Imperial Federation League, and one of its objects was to bring about a political federation. The movement, however, scarcely survived its infancy, receiving its death-blow by the refusal of the Cabinet to allow its discussion at the first Imperial Conference. If the fabric of the Empire is to be changed after the war, as the Prime Minister says it must be changed, political federation in some form or other must follow as a matter of course. Whatever may have been the possibilities in days gone by, the suggestion that we should have a Parliament sitting at Westminster to include representatives from India and the self-governing Dominions no longer comes within the arena of practical politics. Nor would the idea commend itself to the Dominions themselves. The only practical form of political federation is by way of a Council of Empire—a change in our Constitution that would meet with ready acceptance from the communities overseas.

In the Imperial Conference we have the nucleus of a council of this kind. All that is necessary is to alter the composition of the Conference and form it into a lasting and permanent institution. Instead of meeting only after an interval of years, unless summoned for a special purpose, this hiatus must disappear, and the assembly be given true Imperial representation by the addition of India. Instead of the Dominions sending their Prime Ministers they must select statesmen holding Cabinet rank in the Governments of the day—no very difficult task, and one already familiar to Canadians, who, since the death of Lord Strathcona, have had as their High Commissioner in London a member of the Dominion Cabinet. It only remains to cancel the name Imperial Conference and replace it by that of Council of Empire.

Mr. Runciman observed not long since, there must be no essential article "either for the arts of peace or for the arts of war upon which we cannot, within the Empire, lay our hands." Our national and commercial interests must be our first concern. The monopolies which Germany held before the war, and which she still hopes to retain after the war, must never again be allowed to exist. Any and every effort put forward by Germany to secure for herself the same economic position in British possessions held by her in pre-war days must be combated, not by individual policies, but by joint action.

With the overhauling of the trading denomination of Germany

in British territory must come also a change in our commercial treaty system. In bringing about this change we have been very patently reminded that the negotiating power of Great Britain is very much less important than that of the British Empire as a whole. "If you take the Empire as a unit," says Mr. Hewins, "you can give concessions and advantages to your friends which you cannot contemplate if you split up into various separate independent dominions, each one making its own treaties." This is both timely and sound advice. In fact, in all our negotiations now and after the war it must be the British Empire that speaks, and the British Empire alone. Just as we have fought and died as one nation and one people on the field of battle for a common cause and a common end, so as one nation and one people we must combat any and every effort that may be put forward by the Central Powers to secure after the war the same economic position held by them before hostilities began.

Both here and oversea the naval defence of the Empire must be placed beyond the reach of parties. We cannot afford a repetition of what happened at Westminster and at Ottawa before the war. Oversea assistance in naval matters must be put on a businesslike footing, and contributions, whether in money or in kind, based as far as possible on the risks covered. Included in the premiums to be paid must be the outlay incurred on the maintenance and upkeep of coaling and oil stations. An arrangement of this kind need not of necessity interfere with the formation of local navies, if these navies be desired, but no system of oversea contributions can be really Imperial unless it is one in which all parts of the Empire participate. National Service must be compulsory throughout the Empire.

Unity must be the guiding spirit in all our operations, whether economic, naval or military. Isolated action, however well thought out, however patriotic in design, cannot bring about the results we all desire to see achieved. Henceforward Britons, wherever domiciled, must speak with one and the same voice—the voice of United Empire.

THE EDITOR.

TRADE AFTER THE WAR

THE WEST INDIAN POINT OF VIEW

THE question of trade after the war is receiving gradually increasing attention among all belligerents, and perhaps by none so much as by Germany, whose confidence in her power of recapturing the markets of the world, which she has been compelled to abandon during hostilities, is apparently in no way diminished. On the contrary, Germany is evidently preparing to renew the aggressive commercial warfare which she adopted in the past as a preliminary form of undermining other countries before commencing actual hostilities, and we may assume that, if she can possibly manage to do so, she will revert as soon as possible to her old system of subsidies, by which she may put her own goods in outside markets at a lesser cost than can be done by any country, and also draw to her own markets, both for her own use and as a distributing centre for other countries, the products of the various nations, including those of the British Empire.

It is already clear from the growing voice of public opinion, based on the views of commercial experts, that England does not again intend to tolerate this systematic destruction of its import and export trade, and the views voiced by Mr. Hughes, the Premier of Australia, and by Sir George Foster, Minister of Trade and Commerce of Canada, and also at the recent Congress of Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom, and the more recent Council of Commerce, show that this matter is receiving not only the attention of this country, but also of our possessions beyond the seas. It is therefore only right at this time that the West Indies, as our oldest group of Colonies, should endeavour to bring before the British public their views upon this subject.

It is true that the volume of trade of the West Indies is not as great as that of some other parts of the Empire, and it is also true that, as they are for the most part Crown Colonies, they cannot bring the same influence to bear in shaping their destinies as can the great Dominions. Nevertheless they are

entitled to their say as a potential factor in building up the strength of the Empire in the future, and, curiously enough, although their volume of trade may be small, yet they are practically concerned with the one commodity which is the largest item in the exports of Germany to this country, and which may serve as a striking example of the folly of remaining dependent on Germany for commodities which we can equally well produce ourselves. Needless to say the commodity referred to is sugar.

The exports of Germany and Austria to this country in 1913 amounted to £88,000,000, and of this £15,000,000, or nearly 20 per cent., consisted of sugar.

The next item in exports to sugar is steel, and after that the value of any particular item is comparatively small, so that it will be seen that in dealing with this subject one can immediately considerably alter the tendency of German trade.

It may be said that this Empire cannot handle all trades, and that it is advisable and indeed necessary to maintain and develop our foreign trade, especially for those articles which we cannot, or which we may not wish to, produce within our own borders. But it certainly does not apply to sugar, for when one remembers the vast tracts of land lying undeveloped in our various tropical possessions one immediately realises that, given the encouragement of a preferential tariff, there would be no difficulty in producing the 2,000,000 tons which this country annually requires. Yet in 1913 we obtained 95 per cent. of our supplies from foreign sources, and we obtained 65 per cent. from Germany and Austria, paying them £15,000,000 per annum, keeping in cultivation half a million acres of their land, and employing a quarter of a million of their men.

The West Indies are deeply concerned in this matter, as, while they have produced cane sugar for the last century and more, they have not been able to develop this production in the way they desired owing to the competition of German beet sugar, on which enormous bounties were for a period paid, and on which up to the beginning of the war such a protection in their own country was given that it enabled the producers to subsidise their exports and thus compete unfairly against British production.

The West Indies, in common with the various other British tropical possessions (and also one may add with the potential beet industry of this country), feel that an end should now be made to this, that the Empire should produce—as it can produce—all the sugar that the Empire requires, and that to do this they should receive such encouragement as would be a guarantee to them that the capital to be invested would not be lost.

They feel too that, if action is to be taken in this matter, it should be taken at once and not delayed until after the end of the war, as it is quite certain that otherwise the subsidised sugar of the past will again be poured into this country, and that once this has recommenced it will be doubly difficult to stop it.

Sugar production is not a matter of a day, when one can waive a fairy wand and call tons of sugar into existence. It means the raising of capital, the erection of factories, the clearing of land, the planting of crops and the waiting for them to attain maturity before the consummation can be reached, and this must be a matter of years, for it must be remembered that sugar production is probably the only industry which is of a combined manufacturing and agricultural nature.

The above policy may be called a defensive policy against the tactics of German trade, but in addition to this desire to protect the production of the Empire from the unfair competition of German imports there exists the further—and what one may call the offensive—trade policy of assisting our exports to other countries where they are also as open to the attacks of subsidised German trade.

It must be remembered that Germany has devoted as much attention to the capture of trade in other countries as in our own, and that she has made it her aim to make Germany, and especially Hamburg, the market and entrepôt for the many products which the countries surrounding her wish to import.

The result is that the export trade of the West Indies in such articles as cocoa and other products has largely been drawn to Germany owing to the fact that by steamship subsidies, by banking facilities, and by the commercial intelligence of her agents in the various islands she has made her ports the centre of trade for such products.

The West Indies have no desire to trade with Germany more than they can help, but at the same time it cannot be expected that, if Germany should continue to be the central market for these commodities, they should decline to ship there, and thus have to give up the greater part of their trade in them and turn to the production of others in substitution.

The West Indies feel that a great opportunity has now arisen to make London rather than Hamburg the entrepôt for these products, and, failing the possibility of this, they feel that the British Government should now realise that trade is a matter of political concern and should devote the same attention to its development as has been done in other countries. If it should improve its Consular service so that more information is available of the needs of those markets which have in the past been content to buy through Germany, if it should encourage British

Shipping Lines to offer the same facilities as German Shipping Lines can do, if it should encourage British banks to negotiate foreign bills with the same facility and readiness as German agents and banks have done in the past, then the West Indies, like other British possessions, would be able to increase their foreign export trade, rather than diminish it, as would now appear to be the case if they boycotted the German markets. That is the second point which the West Indies urge in reference to trade after the war.

There remains a further point which is at present a comparatively small one, but which is nevertheless fraught with the greatest importance to the future welfare of the Empire, and that is the subject of oil production.

It is well known that when the Admiralty realised the advantage of oil fuel for the use of the Navy it sunk a large sum of money in Persia in order to ensure a source of supply, and it also counted on being able to obtain supplies from Russia and the Balkan States. The danger of relying on these sources has since been made apparent, as the difficulty of obtaining supplies from these ports must be obvious, and the necessity of securing our interests in Persia was undoubtedly the beginning of the ill-fated expedition to Mesopotamia.

The West Indian island of Trinidad has in recent years been found to possess vast oil resources, and it must be acknowledged that the British Government has realised the value of this to this extent, that it has taken care to control its development. Nevertheless the war has found it unable to take advantage of these British supplies, which lie nearer to England than any other, with the result that the oil production of Trinidad, instead of being a welcome source of supply to this country in these times, is being used only to the very smallest extent.

The freighting of oil is a special business, and it should be the Government's concern to see that there are sufficient tank steamers in existence to ensure that the supply to this country can be maintained to the full extent of its output, and it should also realise that in future, if this country's money is to be sunk in the further development of oil, it would be wiser to do this in its own territories before sinking money in remote and foreign lands.

These remarks apply more particularly to Trinidad, but it is already known that there are possibilities of oil production in other parts of the West Indies and in British Guiana. Indeed this remark doubtless applies to various other possessions of the Empire, and the Government should seriously consider whether, at the end of the war, it would not be advisable to appoint a Commission which might make a survey of the Imperial sources

of oil supply and then set about their scientific and systematic development rather than let them lie undeveloped when oil is becoming more and more of a necessity for the welfare of a civilised State, and more and more necessary for the carrying on of a war such as that in which we are now engaged ; and if oil plays such an important part in the present war, it must be evident to those who consider the matter that, should another war ever unfortunately arise, it is probable that oil may even be more important for its successful carrying on than we can now imagine.

It should be added in connection with the foregoing remarks regarding preferential treatment that in 1913 the Dominion of Canada and the West Indies, including British Guiana, but excluding Jamaica and the Bahamas, entered into a reciprocal trade agreement by which each of them reduced their tariff in favour of certain commodities produced by the other, and this preference the West Indies also extended to the Mother Country.

The question of German goods ousting the goods of England from the West Indian markets has not therefore become a serious one for the West Indies, as they have already taken such steps as would prevent it. They have been glad too to give this preference to the Mother Country as they have fully realised how much they owed to her. Nevertheless they feel that the time has come when a return preference should be extended to them for those commodities which they export, not only because such reciprocity would afford a strong stimulus to their production and development, but also because they feel that after all that the Empire has gone through, and after the men from its various parts have stood shoulder to shoulder in the fray and mingled their blood for the cause of Empire and in the Brotherhood of Arms, the Empire of the future which is to succeed the Empire of the past should be bound together not only by the ties of sympathy, but also by those of common interest, and that, while wishing ill to no nation, its first thought should be given to the advancement and prosperity of its own people.

EDWARD R. DAVSON.

SEAL-HUNTING IN NEWFOUNDLAND

IN the early days of March the throats of the syrens in St. John's Harbour, Newfoundland, are hoarse with screeching, for on the thirteenth of that month the sealers start on the bloodiest expedition in the annals of hunting. Some days prior to the date of departure steamers visit the outports to take on board the "regulars" and to enlist "recruits." There is no difficulty in obtaining an army of hunters. The difficulty is rather to keep the crews within the limit prescribed by law. So fascinating is seal-hunting that every season finds the same ardent hunters manipulating the "gaffs" upon the shifting ice-pans. In early youth they learned from their fathers the art of despatching "white coats"; to-day they teach it to their children, and a healthy rivalry exists between family and family for the honour of producing the most expert hunter.

Seal-hunting is the most dangerous of the varied callings of the Newfoundland fishermen; but use has drawn a veil over their eyes and blinded them to the perilous nature of the annual expedition. Many a tragedy is registered in the annals of the sea, for death in those "thrilling regions of thick-ribb'd ice" is not confined to the passing of innocent and unfortunate seals. To be crushed between boulders of ice or to drift out to sea on a floating "pan" are not media that one would choose in one's passage from this world to the unknown. Considering the hazardous nature of seal-hunting, however, it is astonishing that calamities are so few.

Although Newfoundland cannot claim a monopoly of the cod, herring or whale fisheries, nor yet of timber and minerals, she holds a unique and unassailable monopoly of seal-hunters. The seal-covered ice-pans have lured many nations; but without men the living vats of oil are unobtainable. To run over sheets of ice rising and falling under the influence of an ocean swell; to drag the oily "pelts" for miles in the teeth of a biting blizzard; to return to the ship in frozen clothes, and to sleep on a wind-swept deck are feats that can be accomplished only by men who have the North Atlantic sea life in their blood. The

human qualities essential to the composition of a sealer are Newfoundland's monopoly. The physiques of the seal-hunters seem to partake of the nature of the rugged rocks among which they live.

To keep within the limit prescribed by law, the human freight of no steamer must exceed 175 souls. As "lord high executioner" the captain of the steamer commands the highest salary. The men's share ranges from £10 to £15 each; but if bad luck attends a crew it is probable that each man has to content himself with a sovereign for his five or six weeks of arduous toil.

After three days of steady steaming up the eastern coast of Newfoundland, if there be no ghostly fog hanging between the treacherous Fogos and the Funk islands, the ears of the crews may catch the sounds of childlike wailing in the distance. As though conscious of the presence of their enemies, the vast "patches" of seals rend the air with cries indicative of agitation. Then begins the work of preparation for attack. Each man arms himself with a short, strong metal-tipped club called a "gaff," and, acting under instructions from the captain, battalions are formed and despatched in such directions as are deemed best for rounding up and execution. If the hunters are fortunate enough to strike the main herd, several thousands of dead bodies are soon lying scattered over the ice floe. When the day's battle is over, the work of removing the pelts from the carcasses is prosecuted. The former are strung together and hauled to the steamer, and the latter are left on the ice as a banquet for gulls and fishes.

There are several varieties of seals in the North Atlantic, the most valuable of which is the harp. It is for this animal—which is sometimes called a fish by piscatologists—that the merchants of Newfoundland are prepared to equip their steamers every season, involving an initial outlay of thousands of dollars, with the possibility of their captains returning empty.

The habits of the harps are not well known to naturalists on account of the almost insuperable obstacles that confront the investigator. It is known, however, that they migrate southward from the Arctic and congregate upon the edge of the northern ice floe where their children are born in the month of February. With their sharp teeth they make "blow-holes" in the thick ice through which they can descend to dive for food or escape from their pursuers.

When the young are born they are helpless for some days; but in less than a month they experiment in the art of swimming under the tuition of their experienced parents. From four to five weeks are necessary to bring the young ones to their most profit-

able state. At the end of that time the pelts weigh about 50 pounds, and the yield of oil is then at its zenith. Not for their fur are these "white coats" slain, for nature has not provided them with the commercial commodity of the Alaskan seals. Oil is their chief marketable property. The pelt, which is manufactured into leather, is a minor product.

The young harps are not difficult to kill. A light tap on the nose with the "gaff" is sufficient to lay them out on the ice. Moreover, they unconsciously invite a speedy despatch by the attitude they assume when confronted by the hunter, for they look him full in the face, their soft, restful eyes seeming to appeal for mercy. Only a stout heart can resist the appeal of those pitiful eyes and childlike whimperings.

The hood seals are next to the harps in value. They usually make their homes on heavy ice to the north-east of the white coats, and their community is rigidly exclusive. Valour is their distinctive attribute. These valiant animals can be killed with a club, but a gun is usually preferred. An old dog hood will fight until the last breath leaves his body. The moment he sees a club approaching his nose, he drops his head so that the blow will catch his impenetrable hood. The sealer may as well pound the ice as strike at that bladder-like shield. The strength of his teeth is greater than the strength of a hunter's muscle, and woe betide the latter's legs if they are in the way of a club hurled from the mouth of a fighting hood.

The flipper seal, so called on account of the unusual size of its flipper, is the giant of the North Atlantic seal tribes. Some of them weigh from 1,500 to 2,000 pounds, and it is possible to extract from one pelt as much as a quarter of a ton of the purest oil.

When the work of slaughter is accomplished, and the frozen carcasses lie in heaps upon the battlefield, the men are ordered to the pelts which bear the flag of their respective ships. Then begins the task of hauling them aboard and storing them in the hold prior to departure for the harbour lights of St. John's and home.

Fortunately there are not so many disasters to-day as there were in former times. Experience has revealed the best type of vessel to contend with ice. Wireless telegraphy is now at the service of the sealers, constant communication being kept up between the commodore and her subsidiaries. Nevertheless, 250 men perished in a blizzard during the spring of 1914—a disaster which painfully illustrates the perils associated with the slaughter of seals.

During the sealing season the excitement in St. John's is intense. Between the sporting men of the city hundreds of

dollars change hands, for "first home to port" is equal to "first past the post." Betting on the number of seals caught by individual steamers is also part of the sport. In conspicuous parts of the capital telegrams announce the progress of the crews, and interested crowds await the results with as much enthusiasm as the sportsmen of the Old Country await the result of the Derby or the English Cup.

Towards the middle of April the first arrivals from the ice-field appear between Signal Hill and the Southside Range, the imposing natural guardians of the restful harbour of St. John's. Once more the syrens fill the air with their screeching, and the shouts of the lusty crews are responded to by hearty cheers from the crowd gathered at the water's edge. At night he who would be a loyal Newfoundlander must sit down to a tasty dish of "flippers," just as he who would be a loyal Canadian must be a partaker of the "corn on the cob."

As soon as the steamers have docked, the pelts are unloaded from the holds and skilful hands sever the blubber from the skins. The skins are cured and transferred to sheds ready for shipment to Great Britain and the United States, in which countries they are manufactured into leather. The oil is extracted from the blubber by machinery, after which it undergoes a process of refinement in glass-covered vats exposed to the slanting rays of a powerful sun.

The chief markets for the seal skins are the United Kingdom and the United States, whose joint purchases approximate £100,000 annually. The seal oil was formerly exported to Germany and Belgium as well as to the foregoing countries. The total annual exports to the four nations before the war were valued at £95,000.

FORD FAIRFORD.

THE COMMERCIAL WAR

ITS FINANCIAL ASPECT

II

THE facts and figures given in the June issue indicate unmistakably the power of the modern joint-stock banks, and give some idea of the tendency to ignore certain national requirements which it is almost inevitable that their directorates should exhibit. Yet these colossal banking companies exercise great and beneficial influence not only in this country but also on the finance of the world. It is impossible to disagree with Sir Edward Holden when he says that London is and should remain the financial centre of the whole world. When we consider that in some five years we had lent to our Dominions and to allied and other countries nearly 1,000 millions sterling, it will be seen that the position of London as the banking centre of England has added immensely to our financial influence in other countries.

Further, the unity of purpose and control which is a result of this concentration has enabled the Bank of England and the Treasury with great readiness to consult those responsible for 80 per cent. of the banking interests of the whole kingdom, and thus without undue delay to make such arrangements as have given unprecedented steadiness to our exchanges in the face of conditions extremely adverse to the maintenance, against heavy imports, of a high quotation for the sovereign. The English joint-stock bankers early assisted the country by placing at the disposal of the Government 20 millions in gold, and also provided funds whereby fluctuations in exchange, such as had begun to cause inconvenience and anxiety, were very largely ended. It is quite clear that the old-fashioned private banks scattered all over the country would have had neither the financial power nor the influence with the Treasury which were at the disposal of the great joint-stock institutions, and certainly no Chancellor of the Exchequer could have contemplated a consultation with all the scattered and diverse interests of old-time banking. The Empire has therefore great reason for thankfulness on this score.

On the other hand the disadvantages of the joint-stock system arise from the lack of the real living interest which the old-style banker took in his own business and his own customers. One London bank alone has a larger sum in customers' deposits, etc., than the total in all the provincial banks. It is obvious that with powers over 148 millions of customers' money placed in the hands of a single board of directors that board cannot exercise a delicate discrimination with regard to its provincial customers, and has to rely largely on hard and fast regulations which give very little discretion to local managers and officials; while these managers themselves, being salaried officers under regulation and recruited from the ranks of those who have been trained in the rigid discipline of the bank's routine, are not at all inclined to display initiative or to exhibit sympathies which might very possibly bring them into conflict with their superiors and the regulations. Further, the directors themselves are influenced, as are the servants of all joint-stock companies, by the dividend craving of the shareholders. Necessarily, and only as a matter of duty, the directors must put first the earning of dividends, and second the advantage to the country generally. However broad-minded they may be as individuals, and however strongly convinced that the long view is the best, they must not be outstripped by their competitors, nor can they show balance-sheets which compare unfavourably with those of other banks.

In any assistance granted to commercial or manufacturing enterprises there must be no departure from sound banking practice. It has always to be remembered that the bank owes a duty not only to its shareholders but even more to its depositors, the amount of whose deposits is, as our tables show, very much greater than the capital. The difference between the position of customers having deposit or current accounts with the bank, and that of the shareholders, is a very vital one. The shareholder is a partner of the bank, and by his vote at a general meeting may determine the policy of the bank, or punish those officials whom he deems to have acted against his interests. The depositor, on the other hand, has no such protection, and must rely for the stability of the bank in which he has placed his money on the integrity, commonsense, and sound banking practice of officials over whom he has no control. There is thus an honourable obligation on every bank official to do nothing likely to militate against the safety of the funds entrusted to the bank by its customers. Further, not only honour but prudence dictates this care for the depositors' interests. Since money on current account can be withdrawn at once and that on deposit within a measurable time, it is clear that no banker must so lock up customers' funds as to render it difficult to meet a demand on a large scale should

such arise. That is, securities held by a bank must always be liquid—easily realisable without serious depreciation. It was precisely through neglecting this fundamental precaution that the Australian banks about a quarter of a century ago were involved in so serious a crisis; and more than one bank in the East which endeavoured to combine banking with land mortgage and similar functions has come to grief, because its landed security was not capable of realisation, except by forced sale at a merely nominal price. The bank directorate must resist all ill-informed clamour urging it to depart from the course dictated by prudence and sound practice.

The fact then that our joint-stock banks have not laid themselves out to finance enterprises in which there is always a certain, however small, element of risk should not be recorded to their discredit by those who are ignorant of the principles underlying the best banking practice. If we could be sure that local needs, even when proper liquid security is forthcoming, were not being ignored in the desire to enhance the prestige of the central office and the magnitude and splendour of its operations we should have very little fault to find with the joint-stock banks. Possibly more encouragement should be given to long term deposits at a definite and not a fluctuating rate of interest. To the depositor a fixed return on his deposit is a great inducement, and the present system has grave defects and certainly does nothing to encourage the smaller depositor. Yet if those with small savings could be induced on equitable terms to place their money on really long term deposits, the total amount thus placed with the banks would be enormous. These long term deposits would enable the banks to finance many forms of enterprise which require, not the risk-taking courage of the speculator, but the patience to await certain though deferred return.

Undoubtedly there does exist a very real need for large supplies of capital easily available for the assistance of genuine enterprise. It has not infrequently happened that an industrial concern of limited means has been plunged into difficulties by the actual rapidity of its expansion, and has had to determine between taking risks not justified by the extent of its capital and refusing business, particularly when that business was from foreign countries. In such instances as these some corporation capable of advancing the necessary funds would not only have assisted the individual enterprise, but would have aided in the expansion of our overseas trade. It is useless to expect indiscriminate assistance in such cases from the ordinary joint-stock banks, and unfair to blame them if such assistance is withheld. We must bear in mind the distinction between

proprietors' capital and customers' deposits, and we shall then see that what is required is not a bank but a corporation—no matter what its style—which handles only the subscribed capital of its shareholders, and does not invite contributions of any class from those who are outside the circle of its proprietors. In other words the necessary assistance must be rendered through the combination of individuals who are prepared to take their own risks, and to share in such risks as are reasonably incidental to all enterprises, in consideration of a proper return on their investments. Such combinations must be formed *ad hoc*, and an example of the operations of such a body is furnished by the last report of the Rubber Plantations Investment Trust.

This I have selected because rubber furnishes a typical example of the risk I have above referred to. The commodity itself being a natural vegetable product is subject to all the influences of good or bad climatic seasons. Being produced in tropical countries it is dependent on supplies of coloured labour, which in their turn present their own difficulties and risks. The world's demand for rubber, though reasonably expected to show a steady increase, has yet its own fluctuations, and is exposed to possibilities of combination among buyers which may seriously affect the growers' profits. There is the additional consideration that the rubber tree takes time to mature, and that therefore investors in rubber plantations in the early stages of the plantations' growth cannot expect a return till the trees are ready to be tapped. Those who invest in rubber plantations must exercise judgment as to risk and patience as to return. Clearly then the banks' assistance to rubber must be limited to the customary discounting of documentary bills and similar transactions. No bank would be justified in heavy advances which could only result in locking up its customers' money in land mortgage security.

The Rubber Plantations Investment Trust has an authorised capital of £2,000,000, of which £890,000 (in round figures) is paid up. The Trust has borrowed some £400,000, and has invested in tea, rubber, tobacco, and produce estates £915,000. Of the estates in which the Trust is interested there are eight which have been actually formed by the Trust, and, of these, five are still only in a state of development, while the remaining three are in the early stages of dividend production. Of the total amount invested some £96,000 is held in the form of debentures, and £115,000 has been put out in well secured advances to companies in which the Trust is largely interested. Owing to the conditions at present prevailing there has been a somewhat heavy depreciation in the investments held. At the date of the last annual meeting a strict valuation of the shares held, based on the

current market price, showed a depreciation of £161,000. The chairman of the Trust records his directors' opinion that this depreciation is largely artificial and that it will gradually disappear as the plantations come into bearing. This opinion is certainly supported by the distinct improvement, amounting to £114,000, which has taken place between the general meeting held in 1914 and that of 1915. This improvement has taken place in spite of a great deal of depression due mainly to the war. On the year's operations there was a loss of £378, due to the fact that to save a rapid call on uncalled capital recourse was had to loans, on which of course interest had to be paid. There is a practical certainty of adequate return as conditions improve and gardens come into bearing.

Further instances both within and without the Empire might be given of operations similar to those of the Rubber Plantations Investment Trust, but in each case the same elements are present, and these distinguish the work of these trusts from the functions of legitimate banking. An extreme case is to be found in connection with the efforts now being made to promote the aniline dyeing industry in this country. The Government has here taken the part of the Investment Trust, and has made itself responsible for a large amount of financial assistance. This assistance is however coupled with the condition that the shareholders of the dye manufacturing company shall themselves be drawn from the class of manufacturers who would use the dyes in their ordinary operations. Still the principle is here the same. Government takes the risk, which no bank would be justified in assuming, and, being Government, is able to lay down stringent conditions, the compliance with which it is supposed will minimise the risks incidental to the inauguration of this highly important national enterprise.

If we are to maintain our pre-war position in existing markets in the face of the competition now being organised by neutral countries, and, further, are to eliminate German competition from our own and other markets in our own favour, we must revise our financial methods somewhat along the lines I have indicated. The great joint-stock banks must give serious consideration to the question of whether their present procedure does afford to those industries remote from London sufficient support, and must if necessary modify that procedure—always within the limits of safety—so as to permit of adequate support and encouragement being given. That the tradesman banking with a branch of one of the great London banks should find his money sent to the Capital to finance operations in which he is not concerned, while he is himself hampered by the lack of readily available temporary assistance is a position which is destructive

of local effort and consequently deleterious to the general well-being. Even if the banks do their utmost in these directions, they will still need to be supplemented by investment corporations of one style or another, in order that we may give full opportunity to those among our manufacturers, merchants, and pioneers, who are desirous of extending the bounds of our industries and trade. Warned by Germany's example, and profiting by her mistakes, we should easily be able to avoid the possibility of involving ourselves in any similar vicious circles of unhealthily stimulated productivity and feverish finance.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

SHIPBUILDING IN CANADA

IN these strenuous times of war and over-worked industries it is interesting to find a municipality offering free sites, exemption from tax and other inducements to shipbuilders and others to lay down plant in their city. The city of Three Rivers, Quebec, up to a decade ago was practically unknown, whereas, to-day, the population exceeds 20,000.

There is an abundant supply of skilled and cheap labour with freedom from strikes. One industry which commenced operations in 1909 with 12,500 spindles, is now operating 75,000 spindles and employs over 1,000 hands. Another industry is running night and day in three shifts of eight hours each, to keep up the demand for its products. The prosperity of the average citizen is shown by the fact that more than 50 per cent. own their own homes.

Three Rivers is geographically and commercially the natural centre of an immense district in the heart of the Province of Quebec. This district stretches from the banks of the St. Lawrence northward to Hudson Bay. Three Rivers proper is situated on the North Shore of the St. Lawrence, midway between Montreal and Quebec cities, the distance being about 75 miles each way. The harbour affords all the facilities required for modern ocean traffic. Its wharves are over two miles in length, mostly of concrete, and the water has a depth of over 50 feet with a tide water rise of twelve to fourteen inches. There is no vessel afloat that cannot reach its wharves without danger or difficulty. The Canadian Pacific, the St. Maurice Valley, and the Grand Trunk Railways place the city in direct communication with all the business centres in Canada and the United States. Within an easy radius of the town is an agricultural population of over 500,000 exporting annually dairy products to the value of \$1,500,000. In the southern portion of the district are found large and valuable deposits of asbestos. Iron ore abounds throughout practically the entire district.

EDUCATION AS A PREPARATION FOR FUTURE WORK

FROM early times in the world's history the question of education as a preparation for future work has been considered one of great importance, and in all the centuries that have passed since Plato wrote, the chief problems have remained much the same. In the seventh book of the Republic, when he is considering the training of the future guardians and rulers of the State, he dwells upon two main points—the unreality of education in the Greek world, and the need for the development of character to be regarded as the chief task of educators.

What men learn, he says, is but a shadow of reality—true education should be the turning of the eye of the soul towards the light—only those greater souls whose eyes are turned so that they apprehend the good shall be the rulers or guardians of the State, and these souls must realise their community with lesser souls, and not stand apart from them because they have known the light. They must turn back to the shadow-world again, until, under their guidance, their subjects may emerge into the light with them. Secondly, he insists upon an all-round education for the building-up of character, an education that does not end with school-days, an education in which there is no sort of strife between the respective claims of art and science and no gap between study and practical life.

It is a far cry from Plato to 1916, and no doubt he wrote for a more leisured community than ours, leaving out of account the less favoured sections of the Greek world, whose time of preparation was short and whose work in the world heavy and laborious, but in the main we might do worse than think over his criticism and hold by his ideal. Never has education mattered more than it does now and will in the future, never will the careers of girls and boys be of more vital importance to the nation than those of the pupils now in our schools. Therefore a preparatory education on the right lines must somehow be secured, if it is not already in being, and it is vital that we should be ready to withstand the

attacks which are being, and will continue to be, made upon the basis of our teaching, and the demands for earlier specialisation which, always inarticulately present, are finding voice in the national crisis.

This is, however, I venture to think, not a time for detailed discussion of changes in curriculum adapted to meet possible demands, of subjects to be added or withdrawn, of the usefulness and the uselessness of this and of that ; we have no guidance as to the needs which will be outstanding in the years that are before us : the events of each day as it passes are moulding the face of the future, the outlook is different, if we could see it from week to week, nothing is stable, all is in flux. It would be an unreal discussion at best, because we have no data upon which to go. But, that there is a future work for which education can and must be a preparation, and for which it can and must begin to prepare at once, is beyond all doubt and question. If we had failed to realise this, the urgency of it would have been pressed home by the outer world of critics, who have laid upon education the responsibility of the world-war.

If defects in education have made the war, a chastened system must mend it. The clearing of the *débris* of it and the rebuilding after it is the "future work" with which we must be intimately concerned. If this be so, then what matters is the spirit rather than the material in these days of waiting, the atmosphere and not the substance. To make the girls for whom we care realise that citizenship in the truest sense of the word is to be their destiny and their future work, this is the immediate burden of our day.

There has been a tendency in the years before the war to regard the subject of education as an equipment in one of two ways, as the be-all and end-all of education as a whole, or as a technical and specialised training contrasted with and separate from the other kind of education. Against both these attitudes there has got to be a fight—for the first is deeply rooted in the nation at large, and from the second it is difficult for anyone to be altogether free.

As an example of the first we have the London County Council's "Economies," standing out as a flagrant and rather terrible example, illustrating as they do a trend of feeling which is far too wide-spread. Staffs are to be cut down, schools and colleges shut up and their students dispersed, provision for the teaching of small children must be withdrawn, while, alongside of this, they offer "intensive classes for girl clerks," and clamour for girls from the secondary schools to fill them. I am not questioning the urgent need for trained work just now, to do the work of men, but I do question the wisdom that endorses the

policy of restricting the opportunities for a general training. Moreover if this kind of thing is done when the pinch is only beginning to be felt, and not only done but applauded by many people who ought to know better, what can we look for when we wake up to find ourselves poorer, more obliged to think of the needs of the moment? Is it likely that public bodies will be generous except for an education meant to answer just those needs and no others?

What is the use of classics, history, and literature, will be, nay, is already the cry. Arithmetic to reckon with, a modern language to give one an advantage over others in applying for posts, plenty of science to beat the Germans with—what more is necessary? The kind of education we have been giving has turned out people with half-baked minds, says Mr. Wells, people who have studied all kinds of unsuitable things and nothing well. Let boys and girls choose their own bent and work that, and above all let science be the basis and no longer the humaner letters.

Many attacks such as these are no doubt based partly upon ignorance. Things have changed in schools, the curriculum has become more elastic, and the extremer charges are no longer true. But it is true enough that what advance has been made in education has been rather through the enterprise and zeal of individuals, than through the encouragement of the nation and of national funds, while special training has been very inefficient. We have turned boys and girls out into the world not well equipped by technical training, and they have been allowed in many cases to drift into blind-alley occupations. Trade schools are still more or less in their infancy and need lavish encouragement and development. The war is educating the nation to see that this specialised preparation at least is necessary, and the next step will be to secure the acceptance of the belief that a preliminary general preparation is more necessary still. For now, if ever, is there need that everyone should be at his best, and should go forth upon his adventure with life and stimulus to be up and doing, with the spirit of intelligent service, and that can be helped only by an education which has been real and vivid, which has opened out to him the vista of many possibilities, which, while not unwisely diffused, has yet been lavish in suggestion of infinite worlds to conquer and understand.

If the generations that are to rebuild the world can be sent upon their errand with alert and ready minds, quick to grasp essentials, not bound within the narrow limits of their own immediate work, then, whatever their choice of individual profession, they will be invaluable citizens.

It is this need to make the world as big as may be in the

early years that makes one anxious at the present moment not to yield to the cries for specialisation in school-work. It is one thing to encourage a child on the lines of its general aptitude, and another to shut it up within the four walls of its own destined career. Things of the imagination have got to count and do count—children have a good appetite for all sorts and it should be satisfied. Even from the most sternly practical point of view, imaginative insight and a wealth of intellectual experience are great assets. After all, there are few careers which do not involve intercourse with one's fellow-men, and which may not lead to some kind of influence or authority over them. Skill in the mastery of natural forces is no doubt a most necessary thing, but I have yet to learn that skill in the mastery of men is not a greater. Science will not teach us this, and in whatever else the nation may have failed, it has not failed here.

It may not be unnatural that in a great war, when technical skill and scientific resource are so essentially the needs of the moment, men's eyes should be turned rather to this aspect of education, but there is a grave risk that they may overlook what matters more. Are we not at this moment beholding a nation supreme indeed in efficiency but abject in moral degradation? Is it a time when we can lightly fling away, or regard as of secondary importance, that training which has made us at any rate clear-sighted to see, and strong to resist, the spirit of evil, which has made us, with all our defects, a nation fit in all humility to bear upon its shoulders the burden of Empire. The knowledge of men in ancient civilisations, and of their ways of solving problems in many ways similar to ours, the study of their thoughts about themselves and the universe, these things may seem unpractical, but not once only in our island story has a training in humaner letters produced a great practical administrator.

And, in essentials, what is true of men is also true of women. They are the mothers of men, and if men are to have a clear vision of citizenship and their duty, it must be largely because their mothers teach it them. Moreover, there is a prospect that a woman's share in the process of reconstruction will be a more direct one than this. The chances of marriage for girls will for some years to come be considerably less, and though it is difficult to say at present how the problem of women's work will be solved when the men return, there is, I think, little doubt that it will remain more varied than it was before the war, and that provision will have to be made for its greater variety. This widening out of possible spheres is all to the good, for the choice between teaching and that vaguely euphemistic term "clerical or

secretarial work" has been practically all that girls have been able to indulge in; for the first few are really and truly fitted, while the second is often prospectless and monotonous. Alertness and adaptability are qualities which have their value everywhere, and if to these be added the appreciation of a scientific method, there need be no fear that girls will not take a worthy share in the world's work. The development of science-teaching in girls' schools may or may not be possible or advisable on a large scale at any rate, but its method and its impersonal appeal are both invaluable; if it is not possible, we can at least inculcate a scientific method in general teaching. Girls are by nature very receptive and imitative, and what they need encouragement to develop is a capacity for initiation. The exigencies of war are proving that it is latent and needs only to be brought out, and if, at any rate in the higher forms, the "seminar" system could perhaps be more freely employed, with its spirit of joint research, of companionship in study and mutual aid between elder girls and mistresses, we should get for girls who cannot hope for a college career a little of that atmosphere which a college career can give. For, in the years to come, it is the standard of the average that will be of importance, for the simple reason that during reconstruction the work of the average will be what really matters.

While France was achieving her re-creation between 1870 and 1914, it was the prudence, thrift and foresight of the French peasants that healed their country, the fact that they were high-hearted and never despaired. And so with us, after this struggle which, though it must bring victory, will bring terrible sorrow, privation and penury in its wake, it will be the sense of duty of every man and woman, the effort of every man and woman to do the country loyal service that will restore us, and not the work of statesmen or of soldiers. If this world war is to leave something better than devastation only behind it, if the lives lost for England in the trenches of Flanders and Gallipoli are not to have been lost in vain, we must learn over their graves the lesson of self-sacrifice and humbly take up the charge they leave us—that we by living, as they by dying, shall serve, that when our time is come, we, like them, may be content.

ETHEL STRUDWICK

(Head-mistress of the City of London School for Girls).

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

ON account of the growing demand for leather by reason of war conditions, the hunting of sea lions and the use of sea lion hides for leather are proposed as new industries for the Canadian Pacific coast. It is reported that a factory in British Columbia has made many pairs of excellent gloves, belting and other leather articles from sea lion hides.

FOLLOWING the policy pursued during harvesting last year in Western Canada, the Canadian Militia Department will permit enlisted men in the three prairie provinces to assist in farming operations this year. The men will receive a month's leave of absence. This, as in England, will be of much assistance in solving the labour problem during the war. There are about 35,000 men enlisted and mobilised at present in these three provinces, and it is understood about 25 per cent. of them will take advantage of the opportunity to assist in field operations, in some cases on their own farms.

To fill the depleted ranks of farm labour in Ontario on account of the war, it has been estimated that no fewer than 15,000 students of fifteen years and upwards, attending schools, would be available this summer for farm work, and an effort will also be made to obtain American labour.

THE lumber cut in New Brunswick will be much larger this winter than was anticipated at the opening of the season. On the New Brunswick Railway Company's lands the scalers' returns are said to show a cut of about 65,000,000 feet, which is fully equal to last year's figures. Although there are about 50,000,000 feet of manufactured lumber awaiting shipment on the Miramichi, almost all the operating concerns along the river are cutting more than they originally intended to take out. In the district about Fredericton the cut on the Crown lands is as large as last year, and this is said to be generally true of the operations on the St. John River. On the Upper St. John, *Bangor Commercial* says the total cut is 53,500,000 feet, a million of which will be cedar. It is generally recognised among lumbermen that the slump in lumber is over and that improved conditions may be looked for this summer.

THE Canadian fur industry, which has been adversely affected by the war, shows signs of revival. A new branch of the industry, namely that

of raising black Siberian hares, is reported to be taking its place alongside the raising of black foxes in which so much capital is invested. The rearing of the black hares has been taken up by parties in Sackville, New Brunswick, and it is believed there will be a very considerable demand for the fur.

OFFICIAL returns just to hand show that in one month no fewer than 1,061 free homesteads were taken up by settlers in the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia. The free land grants involved nearly 170,000 acres. In addition to these homestead entries there have been many settlers taking up land by purchase from railway and other companies all over the Dominion from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to the Pacific. Many of the latter class of immigrants have crossed the boundary from the United States. Of the free homesteads taken up 189 were in Manitoba, 368 in Saskatchewan, and 480 in Alberta; 168 of these entries were made by English emigrants and 129 by Americans. The total shows a falling-off of only 353 free grants of land as compared with those of the corresponding month of 1915—a remarkable result when it is remembered that the usual homesteading class is practically all under arms, and that the munition factories, both in Great Britain and in Canada are insatiable in their demand for workers, while the Canadian emigration propaganda is suspended in consequence of the war.

THERE is a revival of interest in wooden shipbuilding in the Maritime Provinces of Canada, a number of large schooners being in process of construction at Nova Scotian points. Most of the old shipyards at St. John, Black River, Gardiner's Creek, Quaco and other former shipbuilding localities, though in a dismantled state, are still available for the construction of wooden craft, and there is a sufficient number of workmen in the province conversant with shipbuilding to ensure good work if the industry were revived. Negotiations are now pending for the building of a number of ocean-going barges in the locality. If the wooden ship industry were revived it might ultimately lead to the establishment of a local steel shipbuilding plant.

For many years it was tacitly assumed that fruit would not thrive on the prairies of Western Canada. Now, however, it has been proved that both small and large fruit can be grown in many sections of the west. There are apple trees bearing well, both crabs and large varieties, in many gardens, particularly in the older parts of Manitoba. In all cases these orchards are, of course, sheltered either naturally or by planted groves. There are at least a dozen small orchards in the town of Emerson, bearing apples or plums. At Winnipeg, Portage la Prairie and Brandon there are also successful attempts to grow these fruits, while Stevenson's orchard near Morden is widely known. Discouragement has been experienced by some persons who tried to grow larger fruits without good shelter, but success is usually assured to all who persevere in producing proper conditions for growth and development. The smaller fruits, raspberries, gooseberries and currants do as well in

Western Canada as in the east. Strawberries can also be grown by experienced gardeners, and wild varieties are abundant.

In the year comprising the last six months of 1913 and the first six months of 1914 Germany sold to Russia more than 55 per cent. of her imports. These imports have been running into enormous figures every year, each succeeding period showing a large increase. Naturally Russia will look to another market for as many of her requirements as possible when the war is over. The importance of this Russian trade was presented to Canadian manufacturers during a visit to some of the larger centres of the Dominion by the general manager of a large firm of steamship owners and forwarding agents of Petrograd and London, who went to Canada for the purpose. The Canadian Minister of Trade and Commerce was so impressed with this opportunity for new commerce that he has arranged for a special Russian service and information department. This department will collect and supply to Canadian manufacturers information as to Russian trade, and will secure special information when necessary. Already there is a Canadian Trade Commissioner in Petrograd. It is suggested that representatives of Canadian manufacturers should be sent to Russia to learn at first hand the real requirements of Russia, which, after the war, will want enormous supplies, and will doubtless prefer to trade with her allies in the great struggle now raging.

NEW BRUNSWICK official reports show that coal mining, especially in the Grand Lake region of the province, is becoming an increasingly important industry. During the past year royalty was paid on 118,953 tons of coal, as compared with 96,577 during the preceding year. The manager of the Minto Coal Company reports that there is a demand at present for 50 per cent. more coal than the company is able to raise.

OFFICIAL returns show that the total imports of merchandise for consumption in Canada for March last amounted to \$62,565,988 compared with \$40,858,179 in March, 1915, an increase of \$21,707,809. Domestic exports of merchandise for March, 1916, amounted to \$88,414,238, as compared with \$45,118,922 for March, 1915, an increase of \$43,295,316. Increases in the exports of the products of the mine, animals and their produce, agriculture, manufactures and miscellaneous merchandise are shown, while decreases are shown in the fisheries and the products of the forest.

SIR GEORGE FOSTER, Minister of Trade and Commerce, in an address on "foreign trade" at a dinner given by the Winnipeg Board of Trade just before he left for this country, made the announcement that he will establish, in the near future, probably at Ottawa, a commercial museum for the purpose of affording practical hints to those contemplating the launching of new industries in Canada. Samples of products of other nations, with a history of each, will be shown, the idea being to enable prospective manufacturers to investigate and decide whether the articles could be successfully manufactured in the Dominion. He also suggested

a yearly convention of practical financial and commercial men and a commission representative of business interests.

COLONEL D. C. MACKENZIE, commanding the 141st Canadian Battalion, which is recruiting at Fort Frances, Ontario, has secured an albino beaver for presentation to His Majesty King George on behalf of the regiment. The albino beaver is a freak of nature, and is said to be the only one on the North American Continent.

ARRANGEMENTS are being made at Ottawa for returned soldiers to act, as far as possible, as home guards in Canada, thus releasing the present guards for overseas service. Quite an army of men are patrolling the canals, railway bridges, public works, and internment camps. There are many returned soldiers who are not equal to active service, but who have recovered sufficiently to undertake these duties, and they will be given the opportunity of doing so.

THE situation as regards Saskatchewan coal mining in the year 1915 is notable from the fact that with a reduced number of mines in operation the output increased by nearly 40,000 tons. On April 30, 1915, the Bureau of Labour had recorded thirty-three mines as being in operation in the province, and the output for the twelve months ended on that day was 199,432 tons, while in the period since that date there were only twenty-seven mines working which, however, produced 238,119 tons. This result is partly due to the fact that several of the smaller mines closed temporarily, leaving the larger mines with the more up-to-date machines and methods to carry on the work, while the demand for fuel by the countless factories engaged on munition work kept the mines working at top pressure.

THERE is now in Canada one telephone installation for every fifteen persons in the Dominion. The number of telephones reported as being in use in 1915 was 533,090, an increase of 11,946 over 1914. The principal growth was in rural districts. The net earnings of the 1,396 companies in Canada totalled \$4,764,957, which was \$350,091 better than the result of 1914. The total capitalisation of Canadian telephone companies now amounts to \$74,285,000. The growth of the system in the rural districts is remarkable as demonstrating the use that is being made of the telephone by the farming community. On the Canadian farm the telephone is no longer regarded as a luxury but as a necessary adjunct to business, while at the same time in the sparsely populated districts it eliminates to a great extent the disadvantages of distance from one's neighbour.

SOUTH AFRICA

THERE are signs that better times are in store for ostrich farmers than those they have experienced for the last two years. Prices have advanced considerably—according to a Grahamstown paper the advances at the sales held there recently amounted in some cases to 50 per cent. The report goes on to say that brokers are urging farmers to pay careful

attention to their birds, and that buyers express sanguine hopes of an uplift in the demand, particularly in American quarters.

ONE of the largest sales of landed property in South Africa will take place shortly, when Sir Abe Bailey's Colesberg Estate is disposed of. There will be sold 33 farms, 964 horses, 1,819 cattle, 41,210 sheep, 4,864 goats and 748 ostriches. The livestock includes some magnificent studs of thoroughbreds, Hereford cattle and sheep.

Just before Christmas an exhibition and sale of locally made toys was held in Johannesburg and aroused such keen interest that it was felt that there was an excellent opportunity for a new industry. It has accordingly now been definitely decided to proceed with the manufacture of toys under the ægis of the National Service Fund, which was promoted by the Women's Reform Club. It is proposed to hold monthly toy competitions in the near future, and a shop is to be opened in a central position in Johannesburg. Toys are already coming forward from all parts of the Union, and the Governor-General and Lady Buxton are giving the movement their most hearty support.

At a recent meeting of the Geological Society in Johannesburg, a number of diamonds which had been obtained from the Simmer Deep Mine were exhibited. Referring to these stones the President of the Society said that diamonds had now been found in the conglomerates of the Witwatersrand system in the Klerksdorp District, in the Central Rand, in the Germiston area and on the East Rand. When it was considered that for every stone recovered thousands were destroyed in the motor boxes, and that only one group of conglomerates—the Main Reef zone—had been extensively exploded, it became apparent that vast numbers of diamonds must be locked up in the Upper Witwatersrand beds. The stones that had hitherto been found all presented sufficient identity of feature—their colour was invariably green—to warrant the assumption that they had been derived from the same source. Where that source was situated they did not know, but investigations which had been made on the Rand conglomerates suggested that it lay to the North-West and that the diamonds had been brought to their present resting-place through the agency, at some remote period of the earth's history, of a great river, of which he hoped something more would be told in the future as the result of further investigations.

AN exceptionally interesting publication has been issued by the Union Government, being a survey of geology and mineral industry of German South-West Africa by Dr. Percy Albert Wagner. A highly interesting chapter is devoted to economic geology and mineral industry. The asbestos deposits are of no importance, but there is an abundance of good building stone, though no large quarries have been opened up. No workable seams of coal have been discovered in the country, but copper mining provides, after diamond mining, the most important industry of South-West Africa. Copper deposits occur, and have been opened up at quite a number of widely separated localities. The various occurrences which have been examined may be classified as follows: (1) Deposits in

the Otavi dolomite, in which copper is associated with lead ; (2) magmatic deposits in which copper minerals occur as segregations in pegmatite, aplite and granite ; (3) pegmatite quartz veins ; (4) quartz veins ; (5) impregnation deposits in mica schist.

No diamonds have been found more than fifteen miles from the coast, which makes it clear that the deposits are in some way related to the sea. After discussing five theories for the origin of the diamonds, Dr. Wagner says : " There only remains the fifth theory to which the facts certainly appear most satisfactorily to lend themselves. It has already been pointed out that the diamonds attain their maximum average weight in the Pomona area. This circumstance, together with the fact that the largest stones hitherto found in South-West Africa were picked up just south of the Pomona boundary, clearly indicates that the centre from which the gems are distributed is situated in the closer proximity to the southern part of the Pomona claims than to any other section of the fields. Taking everything into consideration we are thus led to infer that the South-West Africa diamonds have been derived from a primary deposit or from primary deposits that lie buried beneath the sea somewhere in the neighbourhood and evidently to the south of Pomona." Dr. Wagner states that no workable occurrence of gold has so far been located in the country.

A HIGHLY important report has been issued by the Development of Resources Committee of the South African Institute of Electrical Engineers on the possibilities of establishing in South Africa, on a commercial basis, certain electro-chemical industries. The report does not attempt to cover the whole subject, but is confined to South Africa's chief industries—agriculture and mining. These industries, taken together, now require annually more than two million pounds worth of chemicals, all of which are imported in the form of fertilisers, cyanide and nitrates. The essential elements for the successful manufacture of the compounds are cheap electricity, abundant coal, limestone and the necessary labour. All these elements exist in South Africa, and, furthermore, the local market is to a considerable extent protected from competition by the necessarily high costs of transport chargeable on imported articles, as well as by Customs duties. The report proceeds to consider separately the following compounds : Calcium, carbide, cyanamide and derivatives of cyanamide, and comes to the conclusion that the various products mentioned can be profitably manufactured in South Africa provided the necessary raw materials are obtainable at reasonable costs. It is therefore urged that an early investigation with regard to the location, quality and cost of production of these raw materials is a matter of the greatest possible importance, and it is hoped that the report will be the means of stimulating activity in this direction.

DURING excavations for a new road which is being made round the Cape Peninsula, an old Dutch fort, which formed one of the chain of forts erected round the Peninsula by the Dutch East India Company, has been unearthed at Hout Bay. The fort is in an excellent state of preservation, and contains eight guns, some of which bear the well-known

letters "O.V.C." of the Dutch East India Company, and were in place in 1794; others bear British marks. Among other things of interest discovered was a large heating oven with gridiron for making cannon-balls hot for action. It may be remarked incidentally that the new road referred to is part of a project for making a drive right round the Cape Peninsula, which, when completed, will be one of the finest marine drives in the world.

NEW ZEALAND

ONE effect of the war that threatened to be very serious for New Zealand farmers was the curtailment of fertiliser shipments to the Dominion, and the consequent marked advance in prices for these essential stimulants to agricultural production. Other sources of supply have, however, been opened up, and New Zealand has now received its first shipment of basic phosphate from Egypt. Owing to the New Zealand Government assisting generously in the matter of freights and fixing values, farmers will receive a really high-class fertiliser at prices considerably below those ruling for similar materials.

THE following story is told by a bride-elect who was ordering her trousseau in England before going out to New Zealand to be married. The dressmaker suggested only very warm clothes, and when the young lady demurred at this, asserting that the climate of New Zealand is a beautifully mild one, she was immediately informed: "I assure you, madam, you are mistaken, for that, of course, is where the frozen meat comes from."

THE New Zealand Government has instructed Colonel Patterson, the Administrator in Samoa, to make a report as to the possibilities of increased trade between New Zealand and our first capture from the Germans. Some £75,000 per annum is already handled by the natives for copra, cocoa, and kapok, which are produced at practically no cost; and there are various other industries which should have a promising future there. Amongst these are poultry raising and pig breeding, and since the whole island is a garden, bee-keeping should be very profitable.

THE master bakers of Auckland are asking the Arbitration Court to agree to the employment of women and girls in any department of their trade. Hitherto, women have been restricted to the packing departments and the cleansing of fruit. The advocate for the employers, in explaining the matter to the Court, said that where women could do work equal to that of the men the employers were prepared to pay them men's wages.

"I WAS born in 1840 and am not yet quite seventy-six," acknowledged a hale, well-built man who presented himself at a recruiting office in Palmerston North recently.

MANY are the stories told of the sacrifices made by young New Zealanders to get to the front to do their bit. The latest contingent in training includes two brothers who owned a small farm in a rising

district, which they entirely worked themselves, and which they handed over to a brother-in-law so that they might be free to enlist. The two had a friend that they were anxious to have as a comrade in arms, but who was the only support of his mother, and so unable to go. Learning of the obstacle in his way, each brother arranged to make an allotment of 3s. a day towards the support of the friend's mother. He immediately enlisted, was accepted, and will shortly go to the front with the others.

THE production of wool is the oldest and at the same time the most valuable of New Zealand's industries. In normal times the value of that exported from the Dominion reaches a total of about eight millions sterling per annum. Since the war, however, prices have gone up enormously, and the value of the wool exported has been proportionately greater. Last year it was £10,387,875, an increase of £1,069,761 as compared with 1914, when the total exported was £9,318,114. Actually since the war started the value of the wool exported from New Zealand has increased by nearly 3½ million pounds sterling.

THE fund for providing help, in addition to that offered by the State, to retired, sick, and wounded New Zealand soldiers amounts, in the district of Auckland alone, to nearly £400,000.

DESPITE the war, what will eventually probably prove to be a valuable industry has been started in New Zealand, where for some months past development has been proceeding on a large "reef" of china clay at Ngauawahia, in the North Island. An analysis made by the Government analyst has proved the material to be very similar to the china clay of Cornwall, and experts from English potteries who have seen it have formed a high opinion of its quality. It is said that without undergoing any process it can be used in direct manufacture of several articles. Samples of glazed tiles have been made from the clay, and a Southern firm has manufactured from it insulators for telegraph poles.

A CHURCH in one of the outlying suburbs of Wellington was hampered in its work for want of a building where Sunday school could be held. It occurred to the minister to invite all church-people who were competent to do so to come and help build one. A day was fixed upon. Five churches in Wellington each sent a contingent in motor cars and on motor cycles. At 6.30 a.m. the work commenced, and when the gong announced breakfast the piles were in; at 9.30 the foundations were laid; at 3.30 the sides were up; and at 4.30 the roof was on. At 5.30 the windows were all in and the job finished. The school was occupied next day.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW

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THE WAR AND THE EMPIRE

No observer can fail to have noticed that in all parts of the British Empire the war has brought opposing factions into unison. In Great Britain itself you have the Coalition Government. In South Africa a party leader is kept in power by the help of the Opposition. In Australia the Government has the assurance that the Opposition will assist them in all they consider necessary for the successful carrying on of the war. In Canada both political parties have a common policy of—how best to beat the enemy. These facts show clearly how the welfare of each is compassed in the welfare of the whole.

When the war is over it will be found that old things have passed away, that new conditions must be evolved. The Motherland has done so much, her mastery of the seas has been so well established, that the Empire beyond has gone to rest night after night with the most perfect sense of safety, but with the feeling that they owe their safety to Britain's Navy, a feeling which predisposes them more than ever to rejoice that the nation which created that Navy is their nation. On the other hand the substantial help each dominion has rendered in men and arms must have predisposed the British public to seek a closer union, and to desire a still closer tie between the several parts than the tie which has existed hitherto. I write and think as an Australian when I say that the strength of our affection and the loyalty which has enabled so large a fighting force to be put into the field, is born of the free constitutions which have been granted to us, whereby we have been able to legislate without let or hindrance and to work out our own destiny without a semblance of coercion from the Motherland. It is the confidence reposed in us that welds us

together, but this war has demonstrated that Britain's wars are our wars, and just as we share the responsibility so in some way or other we should be given a voice in Empire questions.

Would an Imperial Council with legislative and executive powers accomplish this? Doubtless it would, but at what cost, and the answer comes in a surrender of some of the freedom of individual action we at present have. Just now and while the war lasts we may be able to say no sacrifice of this nature would be too great in order to secure the solidarity of Empire, but will this be said after the war? It must be remembered little can be done till the war ceases, the sooner after that event happens an effort is made the greater is the hope of success. Strike while the iron is hot. But why make any change? Because the Dominions will demand a voice and increasing populations will justify the demand.

The first step should be an Advisory Council, and its first business should be to discover a basis of customs union for submission to the various parliaments. Is such a basis likely to be found as will meet with the approval of all? Probably not at once, but of so much importance is it to the Empire as a whole to see that never again shall an aggressive nation build itself financially, and particularly in its mercantile marine service, at our expense that some way to prevent this must be found. For years after Australian Federation was first mooted the question of hostile tariffs in the different States was referred to as "The Lion in the path." The lion was however in due time slain, and free trade within the Commonwealth established. While perhaps this is too much to expect at once in the larger sphere of Empire, it is surely not too much to expect a forward move in the direction of a Customs Union for ourselves and fair conditions for our Allies.

The very necessities of the case, the recognition of the dependence of each part of the Empire upon the whole, will predispose them to make concessions sufficient to meet immediate and urgent needs. Having conquered an implacable and brutal foe in battle we are surely able to devise means to restrain him in his trade relations with ourselves. For why should he be allowed to levy an impost on British goods and find a free entry for his manufactures into any portion of our Empire?

Another question in regard to which action is imperative and whose uniformity throughout the Empire is essential, and therefore one to be submitted to the suggested Advisory Council, is the question of naturalisation. For years an open door has been offered by us to persons of German nationality; we have thereby conferred all the privileges of British citizenship upon them without divesting them (which we have no power to do) of

their citizen rights in Germany. Is this fair to British born? How does it work out in this war? It matters not to them which side wins, they are citizens of both; we take all the risks as well as advantages of Britons, they take all the advantages without the risks occasioned by war.

To-day a German citizen occupies a seat in the Federal Parliament of Australia. A wise man he is, in that he has not spoken in Parliament since the war was declared, but he is there at the seat of Government as a British citizen to hear, and as a German citizen to transmit the information he obtains to Germany, should he so desire. In the instance to which I refer this is not likely to happen, but my point is not to attack individuals but to ask why should anyone be allowed to occupy a dual position of this kind. No less pertinent are the facts disclosed in a circular largely distributed in South Africa, concerning a prominent man in Johannesburg; the circular sets forth that (1) He was born and educated in Germany. (2) In 1906 he was naturalised as a British subject. (3) The German Consul in Johannesburg in 1912 writes of him as "The to me well known German citizen." (4) In 1913 the Kaiser bestowed on him the decoration of the "Red Eagle." (5) In 1915 after the Anti-German Demonstrations he assumed the name of Delmore.

The leopard cannot change his spots, neither it seems can a German change his nationality. Should we give to Germans equal citizen rights with ourselves when they are and cannot be of us? Reason says, and we say with all possible emphasis, no! At once and before the war is over the necessary steps should be taken to establish political machinery which would give a reasonable prospect of uniform action in regard to these and other matters in the immediate future.

ALBERT CLAYTON PALMER.

CONDITIONS OF BUSH LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

A SQUATTER'S ADVICE TO EMIGRANTS

HAVING lived in the Bush in New South Wales for some twenty years, I may, perhaps, claim to possess a practical knowledge of the conditions of life and climate prevailing in that part of the great Southern Continent. During my stay in England I have been asked on many occasions by intending emigrants to advise them on these and kindred matters connected with land purchase, land settlement and the employment of labour in Australia. It may not therefore be inopportune if I take advantage of the Editor's invitation to place my views and experience before a wider audience.

Cities and towns are much the same all the world over, the one great thing peculiar to Australia is the Bush. That life in the Bush has its trials and difficulties as well as its advantages and interests will be admitted by every Australian whose opinion is worth having, and if in the remarks that follow I lay stress upon some of these trials and difficulties, I do so for no other reason than to enable the intending settler to understand and appreciate exactly what he will have to face.

The ordinary person is apt to think that Australia is a country more or less like England, only on the other side of the globe, that Australians are simply other English people living in Australia under conditions of climate, life and work similar to those obtaining in England. The first thing then to understand is that a considerable difference exists between the two countries and the two peoples. There is no leisured class in Australia; everyone works, the wealthiest as well as the poorest, and there is plenty of work for all. In the Bush everyone is dependent upon his neighbour. Everyone has to learn how to make shift, to take the rough with the smooth, and all with a smile, to be friendly, hospitable, charitable and self-reliant.

As a rule the Australian climate is very dry, the heat in the day during the summer being often considerable, but I have never known a case of sun-stroke provided temperate habits have been observed; the nights are fairly cool. The new-comer feels the heat at first, but soon gets accustomed to the change and generally lives to a ripe old age. In the winter frosts are

common in many parts, but the temperature during the day is much higher than in England. Dry cycles are frequently succeeded by wet cycles, but the dry cycles are of longer duration and occur with greater frequency than the wet cycles.

Even in what is called the coastal country, which is specially favoured with regard to rainfall, it is not unusual to experience droughts lasting for three or four months. Sometimes there will be no rain at all, at other times a few light showers, often local in character, will fall at long intervals, but these showers make no difference to the grass or water supply. I have experienced two very severe droughts, one commenced at the end of August 1901, and lasted until the middle of December 1902, the other began in December 1914, and ended December 1915. The Government gave us what relief they could by sending up cargoes of fodder by coastal steamers, but during 1915 in a single district in New South Wales, more or less sparsely settled, the losses in live stock were enormous, fully 50,000 head of stock perished. At one town there was no water within 150 miles, and the Government were obliged to convey it by train at a cost to the inhabitants of £7 for a thousand gallons.

The land laws of New South Wales do not assist settlement on Crown land. New Acts are passed without repealing old legislation, and some of these Acts are retrospective in effect. Hence it becomes necessary for the settler to consult a solicitor or a land agent before purchasing Crown land. A man taking up Crown land is committed to the most onerous conditions of residence (ten years) and improvement, nor is he able to dispose of his land how and when he likes, while the extent of his holding is strictly limited. He is subject to constant inquisitorial visits from officials, and, at intervals, he is summoned to appear before the land court which may be sitting fifty or a hundred miles away. And now it is rumoured that if a maximum price for wheat, beef, mutton and butter has not yet been fixed this will shortly be done, thus depriving the settler of any profit he may make in a good season to recompense him for the heavy losses of a bad one.* Actions such as these must undoubtedly tend to check settlement as well as production. It is most unfortunate that the emigrant who desires to take up land in New South Wales, with its beautiful climate, grand scenery and

* Since the above was in type I have received a letter from a friend of mine in Australia pointing out that there has been a considerable slump in cattle values throughout New South Wales owing to the fact that the Commodities Commission, a Commission appointed by the Government for the purpose of regulating the selling prices of food-stuffs, made it known that they intended to inquire into the selling price of meat with a view of seeing if they could not be lowered. As soon as this intimation was made known cattle value fell £3 a head, and many poor unfortunate settlers who were compelled to buy at high prices in order to re-stock their paddocks, have found themselves in a most unenviable position. If they want to sell their cattle now they must sell at a discount. (C. A. G. L.)

enormous area of excellent soil, in fact with everything to recommend it to the settler from the United Kingdom, should be handicapped in this way.

The Government policy seems designed to encourage the settler to become a pastoralist rather than an agriculturist, and to lease him land instead of allowing him to acquire the freehold gradually. It is difficult to discover the reason for this attitude, unless it be a wish to "burst up" large estates indiscriminately, a policy which can only result in killing the goose that lays the golden eggs. In that event considerable areas, for which rent is now being paid to the Crown, and which are used and could only be used as portions of large estates, would have to be abandoned to the growth of noxious weeds and the breeding of vermin, while thousands of persons must be thrown out of more or less lucrative employment. All this means a great exodus of capital from the country.

For the ordinary working-man and the farm labourer the prospects in Australia are excellent, but if he be married he would do well to leave his wife and family behind until he has made a home for them on the other side. On station properties and farms good wages are paid, liberal rations given and fair, if somewhat rough, quarters provided. On the roads and new railway works a higher rate of wages obtains, but no rations or quarters are given. When applying for work on a station a new-comer will do well to pay more attention to the character of the employer than to the question of wages. In the Bush he has only to pay for his tobacco, which is good and cheap, and for his clothes; these in a climate like Australia do not cost much. The best advice I can give him is to seek out an employer with a good reputation, to work hard and do whatever he is asked. Anyone who works well and without complaint, is honest and sober, does his best at whatever job he is put to do is bound to get on. By the time he has become thoroughly acclimatised and gained what is known in Australia as "colonial experience," he should have saved enough money to purchase a small farm or holding, but on no account must he take up a holding of greater extent than he can work himself with the assistance of his family. The employment of outside labour is expensive and should be avoided as much as possible. For the reasons above stated it would be better for him to purchase land direct from private owners. Should he prefer it he could take up dairying, poultry, pig, fruit, wheat or bee-farming on the share system.

I recall the case of a working-man who came out to Australia about twenty-five years ago. He went to work at once on a fruit farm on a very small wage. He stayed on the farm for a few years, his wages being gradually increased. Knowing that he possessed grit and ability his employer suggested that the

man should start for himself, offering to let him have a fifty acre block of uncultivated land provided he turned it into a fruit farm. The only rental asked was 5 per cent. on the value of the land. These conditions the man readily accepted, and so well did he manage that within a short time he was able to purchase the land from his former employer. Gradually he increased the area of his estate, and at the present time is one of the best known and most respected fruit growers in Australia. Another man of my acquaintance on his arrival at a station was put to drive a bullock team. His employer soon discovered his worth and made him first an overseer, then a manager. In a few years he started on his own account, and at the time of his death owned property worth nearly a million sterling. Few may have the ability to found a fortune, but many possess the grit which will enable them to do exceedingly well, probably far better than they would ever have the chance of doing in the Old Country.

A farmer going out to Australia should not take more money with him than is necessary to meet immediate expenses, he should arrange to have monthly remittances. On no account must he think of investing his capital until he thoroughly understands local conditions. He should first of all take a farm on the share system.

Of late years share farming, a system whereby the work is divided between the squatter and the farmer, has been very generally adopted in Australia and proved most successful. It practically overcomes the labour difficulty as well as any lack of capital on the part of the farmer. The squatter clears the land to be cultivated, fences the property, divides it into the necessary paddocks, erects the usual buildings, outhouses and yards and provides the implements, machinery and stock required for the satisfactory working of the farm. The farmer on his part supplies all the labour required for the working of the farm. The profits are divided according to arrangement, the farmer as a rule receiving from 8s. to 12s. in the pound. On a dairy farm from 5s. to 10s. per head is paid to the farmer for every healthy calf he rears when the calf is in a condition to require no further hand-feeding or special attention. No doubt a squatter would get from his land if it were used either for wheat-farming or dairying three or fourfold what he would get from it as a pastoral property, but taking into consideration all the expenses he would have to incur, and the supervision he would have to exercise, it is a question whether it would be worth his while to take up wheat-farming or dairying were it not for the help given by the share farmer.

A man can have the choice of wheat-farming, dairying, poultry, pig or bee-farming, fruit-farming or cheese-making. In this way he will gain a first-hand knowledge of farm life in the Bush, the

quality and accessibility of land and the value of stock in different parts of the State. Having worked a farm on the share system for two or three years, he will then be able to decide what kind of farming suits him best, where to make his home and the most profitable and most economical manner in which to invest his capital. Should he bring sons out with him they can either get their training with their father, or go to one of the colleges or experimental farms where first class training can be had at a nominal cost. And here let me say that nothing is more fatal than to suppose that agricultural training obtained in the British Isles is of any real use for life in Australia. It is not, and this is a point that I cannot sufficiently emphasise.

And now a few words to the public school and university man. Whether he possesses capital or not I advise him to begin at the beginning. He should go to a good cattle or sheep station and offer his services, telling the "boss"* that he knows nothing but wants to learn. He will probably get a job at 10s. to 15s. a week with board and lodging, and this he should accept. He must remember that if other men, doing much the same work as himself, are receiving double his pay he is gaining "colonial experience," without which he cannot expect to succeed. He is, in fact, serving his apprenticeship, but instead of having to pay a premium he is being fed and housed and receiving wages.

The "boss" is sure to keep an eye on him; see how he gets on with the other boys, with his riding, fencing, ring-barking, droving, etc., find out if he is reliable, painstaking, keen about his work, steady, observant, capable of thinking out things, trustworthy and quick about picking up the hang of the work, and when he is worth a rise he will get it, but not before. In due time, if he proves himself capable, he will be promoted to stockman and get his £1 to 25s. a week. As he becomes more useful he will probably be put in charge of an out-station at 30s. a week, rising to head stockman at £2 a week, then to overseer at £3 a week. After ten to fifteen years he should become a station manager. In this position if the station be small he will earn from £200 to £250, and on a large station £300 to £500 a year, all found. During these years he should have been putting by money which if properly invested should return him an appreciable private income.

If the young man has capital, after four or five years of training such as I have sketched out, and provided he be possessed of grit, is intelligent and observant, he should have picked up the necessary knowledge for the calling he desires to follow, and be in a position to settle down to a squatter's life with every prospect of success.

* The manager of an estate in Australia is known as the "boss" or employer.

But the young man without capital should very carefully consider beforehand whether the conditions I have endeavoured to explain will be congenial to him. Many a young man has gone out to Australia without a shilling and succeeded. I know one, the son of a naval officer, who, when quite a youth, had to earn his own living. He went to Queensland and applied for work on a station. On being asked what he could do he explained that he could ride a bit. The "boss" asked him if he would take a job of horse-breaking at 10s. a head and his board and lodging. He took it on, and gradually worked his own way up until, at the present time, though still quite a young man, he is manager of one of the largest cattle stations in New South Wales. On the other hand many more have failed and ended by loafing through life as remittance men. If a young fellow is not prepared to work and put up with Australian conditions my advice to him is do not go to Australia.

It should be impressed on the young emigrant that he must accept Australian conditions as they are and refrain from grumbling and complaining, endeavour to let it appear at all events that the work he is given to do is the work he wished to do, and do it with his whole heart, mind and strength. He must also do his work in the way the "boss" wants it done and not in the way he thinks it should be done. He must be natural, honest, steady and reliable, never too big for his boots and have no side. Nevertheless he must not forget that he is a gentleman, though he should be careful never to ram that fact down anybody's throat. He will have to work with the roughest, living in huts and sharing meals with all sorts and conditions of men, breaking in horses, stock-keeping, boundary riding, fencing, building, ring-barking, burning off, droving, beating out bush fires, in fact doing any kind of work that may be considered necessary to be done on a station. But he must always keep his own self-respect; he will have as his companions men who recognise no religion, no laws, but he should have sufficient strength of character to stick loyally to his religion and conform to the laws, all this he should do simply and unaggressively. Provided a young fellow acts as I have said he must succeed, nothing can keep him back.

The first five years will be hard, very hard, but in the end he will turn out an independent, self-reliant, useful member of society, with a constitution worth millions and a fully developed character. Australia is a country which brings out the good or the bad in a character in an extraordinary degree, and it depends on the man himself which is going to be brought out, the good or the bad.

CHARLES A. G. LILLINGSTON.

(To be continued.)

THE UNION JACK CLUB

AN EMPIRE MEMORIAL TO OUR BRAVE SAILORS AND SOLDIERS

THE Union Jack Club in which the late Lord Kitchener took so keen an interest, is set apart exclusively for the use of sailors and soldiers. It is conveniently situated in the Waterloo Road, facing the main line terminus of the London and South Western Railway. Founded as a national memorial to the men who had fallen in the South African War, it was handed over as a gift to the twin services by the late King Edward in 1907. So immediate was its success and so great was its popularity that three years later it became necessary to provide additional bedrooms for the members, who, even in the early days of the Club's existence, numbered many thousands, practically the whole of the Navy, Army and Royal Marines.

In pre-war times members paid a small subscription, and to that extent membership was limited, but with the outbreak of hostilities in 1914, the Committee generously decided to throw open the Club free of any subscription to all the fighting forces of the Crown, including the oversea contingents. Obviously so wide a membership has made great demands on the Club's resources, particularly in connection with the catering and sleeping arrangements, but the ingenuity of Major Wilkinson, who fills the offices of secretary and comptroller, has been equal to every occasion. Meals have always been forthcoming, and where bedrooms have not been obtainable members have, as far as possible, been provided, in some way or other, with sleeping accommodation.

From the first the Club has been self-supporting, and the Council has never, I believe, appealed for money other than for building purposes. It is run on much the same principle as an ordinary gentleman's club, each member paying for his food and, if he is lucky enough to get one, for his bedroom, a smaller fee being charged for what one might perhaps describe as a "shake-down." There are rooms for reading, writing, and recreation, and of these full advantage is taken. Members can do as they

like provided they recognise and observe the ordinary courtesies and restrictions of club life. They fully appreciate the confidence placed in them, and it is a very rare thing to find the Club privileges abused.

All meals are served in a well appointed dining-room at small tables, a convenience that allows of friends messing together and forming little parties. Besides the general menu a special bill of fare is drawn up for each meal from which members order as their means allow and their fancy serves. The food is excellent in quality and prices are most reasonable. Drinks of various kinds can also be purchased. On the day I visited the club the dining-room was quite full, and waitresses were kept very busy attending to members' requirements. As soon as one table emptied it filled up rapidly. It is no uncommon occurrence for 3,000 meals to be served on a Sunday, and I do not think I should be far wrong if I say that in the course of the year the number of meals served runs into millions.

A special feature of the Club are the bedrooms, some 350 in number. Each room is well lighted and ventilated, neatly furnished and decorated. All is quite simple but nothing is wanting. Most of these rooms have been presented by private donors in memory of friends, sometimes of a friend who has sacrificed his life in his country's cause. Others have been given by regiments and ships. A brass plate on each door shows the name of the donor and the reason for the gift. Since the war started it has been found increasingly difficult to meet the demand for sleeping accommodation. What this demand is may be gathered from the fact that last year 211,445 men passed the night at the Club and its annexes (Morley College and All Saints' Hall) which have been lent to the committee so as to be ready for every emergency. After a specified hour the recreation rooms are commandeered for sleeping purposes. In some bedrooms are set up, and, where that is not practicable, mattresses are placed on the floor. Baths can always be had, and a hair-dressing saloon is provided.

Not only has the Club been the means of bringing about a closer union between the men of the Navy and the men of the Army, but it has proved an invaluable agency in solving many of the difficulties that have arisen in connection with the mobilisation of troops and their movement from one locality to another. To recruits on their way to the various depots it has been of the greatest help, while officers in charge of drafts, instead of leaving their men to wait about railway stations and public houses, have been able to take them to the Club for food and rest. Almost daily large parties from the trenches visit the Club for a bath or a meal, others look in to see their comrades and receive from

them a word of cheer before returning to France at the expiration of their leave. Sailors and soldiers come in at all times, and except in the case of large bodies of men no intimation of arrival is asked or expected. The Club is open day and night, and light refreshments can always be obtained.

Many and constant are the tributes received from members by the Council and by the Committee. A soldier, leaving by a very early train and fearing he would not see Major Wilkinson, pinned to his pillow a paper on which were written the words—"This is the best place I have ever been in, thanks for all." Another time a sailor, writing to the Secretary, said, "I have used the Club ever since it opened, it is my home." That term exactly describes the Union Jack Club, it is, in every respect a home, a place where a man may go, to use the words of Sir Frederick Treves, "when on leave or passing through the Metropolis, where he may deposit his kit or valuables, where he may obtain a good meal and a decent bedroom, where he may meet his friends and where he may feel that he is under his own roof and 'really at home.'"

Huts have sprung up like mushrooms all over London, and in this way possibly there has been overlapping and perhaps some waste of money. But, as Sir Edward Ward, the popular and energetic President, very pertinently reminds us, the Union Jack Club stands out unique amongst all institutions brought into being during the war for the benefit of Naval and Military men, "in that it maintains itself and keeps itself and so preserves for every one of its members that feeling of individual independence which a man rightfully expects to feel on his own club premises.

Attached to the Club House is the Hostel, opened three years ago this summer. The Hostel has proved of inestimable advantage to married men, and during the short time it has been in existence has provided 30,000 people (including 7,000 children) with sleeping accommodation. To the wives of wounded soldiers and sailors coming up to London to see their husbands it has proved a great blessing. Indeed but for the Hostel and failing the help of friends many of these poor women could only have remained in London by the aid of charity.

I think I have said enough to show the great value of the Union Jack Club and its auxiliaries as a national institution. Of course, when demobilisation comes, it may be that the Club will cease to have the wide membership it has now, but no one can deny that for a very long time to come we shall have to keep a far larger Army in being than was the case in pre-war days. It is, therefore, a matter of the utmost urgency that the premises should be extended and that building operations be started at the earliest possible moment.

The necessary land was purchased before the war, but the money for the purpose was partly loaned from the Reserve Fund, and partly raised on mortgage. This debt handicaps the Club in many ways. In addition there are houses on the new site, and the leases have some six and a half years to run. Before anything can be done therefore the lessees must be bought out. Then there are the married quarters to complete, and included in the larger scheme is the opening of similar clubs in the naval ports and garrison towns.

Now what I want to ask the readers of *The Empire Review* to do is to send a donation, however small, to the Union Jack Club Fund. Some friends will, I am sure, like to endow a bedroom and so identify themselves more closely and permanently with the Club. Let us not forget that sailors and soldiers coming from all parts of the Empire—Australians, Canadians, New Zealanders, South Africans and Newfoundlanders, have on occasions made the Union Jack Club their home. Here then is the opportunity for the men and women of the Dominions to take a part in helping to erect a fitting memorial to their loved ones who, fighting side by side with their kinsmen of the Motherland, have sacrificed their lives on sea and land in the great struggle for right against might.

No one knows the Club and its needs better than General Sir Douglas Haig. Writing to Sir Edward Ward the General says: "The Union Jack Club has for the past nine years conferred inestimable benefits on many thousands of our sailors and soldiers. The present accommodation is totally inadequate, however, to cope with the demands which are being made on it now, and will without doubt continue to be made on it after the war, and your proposed extension scheme comes at a most suitable moment and will, I feel sure, be welcomed by all who wish to perpetuate the memory of those gallant men who have fallen in the cause of freedom."

THE EDITOR.

GREAT BRITAIN'S PRE-WAR TRADE WITH CANADA

AT the present time, when the development of trade and commerce on imperial lines dominates the minds of business men throughout the Empire, it may be opportune to revert to Great Britain's commercial association with the largest of our Dominions prior to the outbreak of war. In our pre-war trade with Canada there were unmistakable signs of retrogression on the British export side. It must be admitted at the outset, however, that any analysis of our exports to Canada and the conditions connected with the conduct of business must necessarily be of a cursory nature in a brief article. All that can be attempted is an analysis of Canadian import trade as it relates to the more important commodities and countries of origin, and, based on an intimate association with the conditions under which business is transacted in Canada, indicate the causes of Great Britain's retrogression, and endeavour to suggest methods for the improvement of British sales.

The total imports of Canada during the last pre-war fiscal year were valued at £123,691,000, distributed thus:—Dutiable, £82,051,000; free, £41,640,000. In the following table are given the values and countries of origin from which imports exceed £1,000,000.

COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN	VALUE £
United States of America	79,113,000
United Kingdom	26,414,000
Germany	2,917,000
France	2,865,000

Of the total imports of Canada the percentages were: from the United States 64 per cent., United Kingdom 21 per cent., from Germany 2 per cent., and from France 2 per cent. The countries of origin next in importance were the East Indies, West Indies, Belgium, Switzerland, Cuba and the Netherlands, the merchandise of which, with the exceptions of Belgium and Switzerland, did not enter into serious competition with the United Kingdom. It is apparent from the above statistics that

the formidable competitor of the Mother Country was the United States; and until we are cognisant of Germany's relationship to Canada after the war, we may conclude that the chief competition will emanate from the same source in the future. At the same time, British manufacturers may expect increasing competition with France, as efforts are now being made by the latter country and Canada to improve their trade relationships.

After the removal of the Canadian surtax on German merchandise, imports from the latter country speedily advanced from £1,590,000 in 1910 to £2,917,000 in 1914, an increase of 83 per cent. Imports from the United States rose during the same period from £43,500,000 to £79,113,000, an increase of 81 per cent.; while those from the United Kingdom advanced from £19,067,000 to £26,414,000, an increase of 38 per cent. It will thus be seen that Germany's sales to the Dominion were advancing at a rapid rate, far more rapid than those of the Mother Country, and that the sales of the United States, although not recording so great an increase as Germany, nevertheless surpassed those of the United Kingdom. The progress of Great Britain's two commercial rivals is all the more remarkable in view of the substantial preferential treatment accorded to British manufactures and the good will towards them which undoubtedly exists in Canada.

It is contended by many British manufacturers that the geographical position of Canada has acted, and will continue to act as a barrier to the development of trade. No one would underestimate the obstacle confronting the Mother Country by the proximity of the United States to the Dominion, but the ascendancy of American manufacturers is not wholly attributable to geographical influence. An additional contention is that the tastes of Americans and Canadians being similar in character, the market of the latter may be considered as merely an extension of the market of the former. If such be the case, the remedy is to be found in an adaptation of goods to Canadian requirements. The success of the United States manufacturers is due in a large measure to their minute study of a buyer's needs, their willingness to produce what is demanded, and their readiness to comply with packing, invoicing and financial requirements. Several British firms well-known to the writer, prior to the outbreak of war, adopted the commercial tactics of the Americans, and even went so far as to instal new machinery. The result far exceeded their expectations, and served to prove that the proximity of the United States is not an insurmountable obstacle.

Perhaps the one valuable advantage conferred upon the United States by proximity is the ability to deliver the goods speedily. But again it must be remembered that if orders are executed at

once, a difference of four or five days in transit is not of great importance to Canadian firms who are usually conscious of their requirements well in advance. Only in exceptional circumstances are orders subject to a brief time limit for delivery. Nevertheless, the speeding up of Trans-atlantic freightage would be of considerable advantage to British exporters.

A brief analysis of the imports of manufactured articles will illustrate the strength or weakness of British competition with the United States. The following table shows the imports from both countries during the last pre-war fiscal year 1913-14. This year is chosen because it would be obviously impossible to obtain a fair comparison from statistics covering the war period.

ARTICLES.	UNITED KINGDOM.	UNITED STATES.
	\$	\$
Woollen manufactures.	26,178,209	2,102,742
Cotton manufactures	17,465,554	17,596,284
Flax, hemp and jute	5,089,071	841,878
Silk manufactures	3,509,384	1,545,086
Metal manufactures	20,060,394	121,251,081
Drugs, dyes, chemicals, etc.	2,980,097	7,927,965
Fancy goods	1,788,248	1,127,726
Hats, caps and bonnets	2,692,944	2,162,170
Earthenware and chinaware	1,873,599	571,312
Glass and manufactures of	1,337,039	2,094,459
Oil and floor cloths, etc.	730,817	183,274
Paper and manufactures of	1,687,839	5,423,037
Furs and skins and manufactures of	860,269	1,776,876
Books, periodicals, etc.	1,409,669	4,966,703
Electric apparatus	952,428	7,505,244
Leather and manufactures of	1,698,580	6,647,202
Paints and colours	805,886	1,032,360
Ribbons	656,380	164,437
Gloves and mitts	1,219,887	323,964
Curtains and shams.	429,441	102,849
Carpets, mats, rugs	16,674	40,508
Cement	66,592	274,555
Cordage, rope, twine	411,561	4,027,309
Gutta percha and indiarubber manufactures	2,542,679	6,137,122
Soap	144,000	1,008,000
Musical instruments	119,901	1,790,384
Jewellery	462,713	1,001,253
Clocks and parts	63,656	462,895
Watches and parts thereof	139,342	880,183
Carriages (including bicycles).	849,628	19,166,892
Buttons and metals for same	145,142	465,021
Collars and cuffs	72,492	96,845
Oils	579,541	15,958,440

Statistics are not popular, but no apology will be extended for their use here, as they form the only media through which the progress or retrogression of British sales to Canada can be illustrated. A glance at the above table reveals the alarming condition of our exports to that country, more especially if the figures be compared with those of the previous decade. In metal manufactures, Great Britain is hopelessly beaten. From the year 1904 to 1914 our exports to Canada advanced from

£2,300,000 to £4,000,000, while those of the United States rose from £7,160,000 to £24,250,000. Had this American increase been wholly concerned with free goods, the argument of geographical position might have deduced a little support therefrom; but the larger proportion was associated with dutiable goods bearing a preferential duty in favour of Great Britain.

A defeat almost as remarkable is recorded in the statistics relating to oils, and drugs, dyes, chemicals, etc. Exports of dutiable oils from the United Kingdom fell from £66,225 in 1904 to £66,130 in 1914; those of the United States advanced from £537,350 to £740,000. Export of duty free oils from the United Kingdom rose from £15,400 to £50,000 during the same period, while those of the United States rose from £25,000 to £2,450,000. The British exports of dutiable drugs, dyes, chemicals and medicines increased from £12,000 to £230,370; and American exports increased from £191,600 to £437,300; the non-dutiable exports of the former country advanced from £175,300 to £365,650, and those of the latter from £466,000 to £1,148,000. A further item worthy of the serious attention of British manufacturers is carriages, bicycles, etc. It is evident that the United States is rapidly expelling all competitors. Although Canadian imports from the Mother Country rose from £6,000 in 1904 to £170,000 in 1914, those from the United States increased from £370,000 to £3,833,000. The preference granted to British manufactures of carriages, bicycles, etc., ranges from 10 to 12½ per cent.

Leather and manufactures thereof reveal a similar state of affairs. Imports from the United States advanced from £350,000 to £1,330,000, and those from the United Kingdom from £73,700 to £340,000. The preferential duty varies from 7 to 10 per cent. With regard to glass and manufactures thereof, imports from the two countries were about equal in value in 1904, but by 1914 the Americans increased their sales by £250,000, while the British increase was only £166,000. And so one might lengthen the catalogue of manufactures recording remarkable increases from the United States and comparatively small increases from the United Kingdom.

The only British manufactures still predominant are textiles. But even in connection with woollens, although the bulk of Canadian imports is from the United Kingdom, the Americans, during our ten year period, recorded a greater percentage of increase, the values being: from the United Kingdom in 1904 £2,746,400, in 1914, £5,235,600; from the United States, £154,550 and £420,500 respectively.

The imports of cotton and cotton manufactures from the United States are also advancing year by year, and keener

competition may be expected in the future. The values during our comparative period were, from the United Kingdom in 1904 £1,200,000, in 1914 £3,500,000; from the United States £1,600,000 and £3,520,000 respectively.

How can British manufacturers increase their sales to Canada? This is a vital question, and one which will become increasingly urgent at the close of the war when all the leading commercial nations will be seeking their bearings. That competition with the United States will increase in intensity there can be no doubt, for in addition to the financial interests of the two countries assuming unexpected proportions during the present crisis, the disorganisation of the British trade has furnished the Americans with opportunities to establish new commercial connections with Canadian buyers. The hope of British manufacturers lies in a probable trade treaty between the Mother Country and the Dominion; but at present we can only patiently await developments.

In the meantime, the appointment of additional Trade Commissioners should receive the earnest attention of the British Government. It was not until 1908 that a permanent Trade Commissioner was appointed to Canada. When he arrived at Montreal, he found that the United States had 140 Consuls devoting their time and energies to the development of American trade with Canada. Germany was represented by fifteen Consuls, and France by a similar number. Since 1908 the British Government has not considered it worth while to appoint additional Trade Commissioners. While it is true that Imperial Trade Correspondents act as auxiliaries to the permanent Trade Commissioner, these gentlemen devote only a small part of their time to their duties, and it is quite impossible for one permanent representative to cover so vast an area as the Dominion. No time should be lost in appointing at least two more Trade Commissioners with headquarters in Winnipeg and Vancouver respectively. A system that is so fruitful to the United States should not be ignored by its leading competitor.

In conclusion, and briefly, the following suggestions may be worthy of consideration:—

- (1) Efforts should be made to lower the costs of transportation both by rail and water, and at the same time an endeavour to shorten the ocean trip by employing fast steamers would tend to minimise the advantages accruing to the United States by proximity to Canada.

- (2) Personal visits should be paid by manufacturers for the purpose of studying conditions, after which local representatives, carrying a full range of samples if possible, could be appointed.

(3) No effort should be spared to cater to the Canadian buyers' demands. Any attempt to dispose of British designs where Canadian designs are requested will only be attended by discouragement and failure.

(4) In quotations the Canadian standards of measurement and currency should be adhered to, and prices must include delivery to destination, or at any rate a Canadian port. It is obvious that if a Canadian buyer receives two quotations, one from the United States in Canadian currency, to local standards, and delivered at port or door, and one from Great Britain in British currency, to British standards, and f.o.b. English port, the latter firm cannot expect the order, other things being equal.

(5) Judicious advertising and catalogue distribution are highly commendable, conditionally that they are in harmony with the commercial usages of Canada.

(6) Every care should be taken to ascertain the credit terms proffered by the United States, and there should be no hesitancy in offering similar facilities.

FORD FAIRFORD.

LUMBERING IN CANADA

LUMBERING, in Canada, continues to give employment to large numbers of men. Nova Scotia districts report most of the mills in operation. The New Brunswick saw mills are working full time with full staffs. In Quebec, the activity in lumbering is also marked. In the vicinity of Quebec City log driving is well advanced and a number of mills are commencing cutting. Stocks in the yards are heavy owing to the scarcity of steamers. Sherbrooke reports all mills running and the market for lumber improving. In Ontario lumbering districts saw mills for the most part are busy. The Pigeon River Mill in the Port Arthur district, after being shut down for some months, has started work. In Northern Saskatchewan mills are busy. At Edmonton one large mill is reported running to full capacity. Logging and lumbering operations in British Columbia on the whole are very active. New Westminster reports a good demand for all classes of lumber and shingles and mills are busy. At Vancouver the demand for men for lumber camps continues steady; all mills in the city are running full time. Nanaimo reports mills in the district working steadily, but not to capacity. Logging operations are active. The lumbering industry in British Columbia is expected to be accelerated by recent legislation of the province granting aid to encourage shipbuilding, particularly lumber carriers.

ON THE WESTERN FRONT

Letter from a son to his father showing incidents on the Western Front. The writer is a 2nd Lieutenant in the Motor Transport Section of the new army, and is attached together with his equipment of tractors and lorries to a heavy battery which as the troops advance is moved forward.

ON Sunday afternoon last, I had news through that we had advanced on that portion of the front which I am connected with and that our guns were to go forward, so off I went on my motor-bike to the battery position, bringing up my lorries and gun tractors after me. I went on ahead and found that I could advance all my vehicles in daylight right up to the battery which had hitherto not been possible; this was a great asset to our movements.

It was a long and difficult job getting out of the old position and every hindrance was in the way; evacuation of wounded had the first call on the roads and field tracks, and then there were line after line of reinforcements going forward, batches of prisoners being escorted back, sometimes in hundreds and as often as not in twos and threes by the proud men who had taken them. Our guns became ditched several times, which meant using planks and anything else we could get hold of; then we had to bridge trenches and shell-holes, in spite of the fact that the Royal Engineers had gone on ahead and done good work in this respect. It was 4 a.m. before we arrived at our new position and by 4.30 were firing our first round; the telephone people had done their work well and we were connected up with our new observation posts and heard from them the result of our fire after the first round. I cannot tell you the size and range of our guns, but it is enough to say that when standing behind a gun (not forgetting to protect the ears) you can see the shell leave on its little journey and follow, with the eye, its course for about ten seconds.

Wednesday morning I took up more ammunition, and at 2 p.m. we started to move the guns and equipment again, and then it was that a certain twenty-four hours of my life started which I shall never forget. I took the guns on one at a time,

and we had to practically make our own road on the way; we went right through what was only four days before a village, but there was not a wall of any house left more than five bricks high; the church had gone altogether and not a tombstone or grave was left. There was not a consecutive five yards of ground left without a shell hole of some description, some of them 15 to 20 feet deep and as many feet across. Unless you knew that the place had been a village, it would be impossible to recognise it as such. The dead lying around, all in a terrible state; some of the German dead must have been there very many days. I enclose a postcard which belonged to one fellow who now requires it no more. The remains of the gas was still in the air and made the eyes smart, and gave one a horrid feeling inside.

It was 11 a.m. the next morning before we got our guns into their new position, and a Hun shell found its way within twenty yards of the battery before we had been there five minutes. Aeroplanes were soon up, telephones working, wireless connected up, and the guilty Hun battery had to pay with interest for its indiscretion. Well, it was late afternoon before I'd completed bringing up the batteries, stores, etc., and then I had time to look round a little in what had a few days before been a German stronghold. The battery people had shaken themselves down in an old German dug-out, and I was soon in it enjoying a mug of tea and bread and butter. I remarked to the Major that just at the entrance of the place I thought the sanitary arrangements could not be quite perfect, so we went out to try and find out the cause, and it was not long before we found it. It may sound careless, my description, but it's not intended that way. I was turning over some old German newspapers and tins and other rubbish when I came across some poor fellow's arm and hand; of course that was the cause of the trouble and it was soon got away, the rest of him was some twenty yards away up a tree. He must have been sniping and caught by a shell burst. I could give scores of incidents of this kind but will refrain.

The German dug-outs are wonderful in the extreme. I will just describe one of them, one of the many I have been in. First of all, at the entrance there was an electric bell, as might be outside an ordinary house. You went down twenty-five to thirty steps, all boarded and hand rails on either side, at the bottom you came to a door, well made with panels, handle, etc. Going through the door you entered a small room about twelve feet square, and then through a passage about fifteen feet or may be twenty feet, you entered a large room about the size of our billiard room at home with tables, chairs, etc., and leading off this were passages about ten feet wide on either side of which were bunks like on a ship, each with a steel spring base. The

place was fitted out with electric light, electric stoves, and all the walls were boarded, as also the ceiling and floors, pictures were hung on the walls and cupboards all round full of supplies. The places were made at such a depth that it would have been quite impossible to get at them. Their trenches, however, told another tale, what was left of them was perfect in every detail, walls and floors boarded, drainage perfect, but we had knocked them about. I went through some of them, but could not stand the sight, some of the fellows just standing up against the walls with rifles cocked, just as if they were alive.

I got back to my billet at 9 o'clock last night and slept for twelve hours. Everything seems so peaceful back here that it is hard to realise what is taking place only a few miles away. The Huns were dropping a good many tear shells over us yesterday, which made the eyes smart,

I went up to one poor wounded German lying by the side of the road on a stretcher and got down beside him and had a chat. He was wounded two days before he was picked up, part of one of his legs shot away, a bullet in the arm and shrapnel in the chest—a great strong Prussian Guard fellow, he must have been well over six feet. None of the R.A.M.C. stretcher-bearers could understand him, but he wanted water, which I gave him, and then I started to describe to him the comfortable bed which was waiting for him and doctors and nurses to set him right again, and to see the fellow's face was a sight. He was unshaven, dirty and as white as the paper I write on, but as I told him where he would be taken to and of the good food in store, the colour came to his cheeks and he told me in gasps that he thought the wounded we took were done away with and that we didn't care. Then one of our Tommies came up and gave him a cigarette, but the fellow was too weak to draw it. The sight of that chap's face when I left him was a full reward for any little attention I had paid him.

Another incident with a more lively touch in it. I met on a road and just coming out of a communication trench one of our fellows with three German prisoners; he had got their caps stuck on top of his rifle and looked as pleased as Punch. He saw me and called a halt something after this style: "Now then Boches, halt! Look here, when I call a — halt, I mean a — halt, see?" He then asked me the way to a certain place and told me he was not going to let them out of his sight till he had a formal receipt for them as they were his catch. The last I saw of them was going off down the road and the gentleman to whom they "belonged" smoking a huge Hamburger cigar. I could go on telling you of many incidents of this kind if time allowed.

THE COMMERCIAL WAR

I.—RESPONSIBILITY OF THE GOVERNMENT

THE nation is beginning to organise itself for war. Organisation for peace is no less necessary. An unorganised nation is as much a mob as an undisciplined regiment. There is this one difference between them; the duties of the regiment all converge on to the day of battle, while the nation's activities occupy the whole of existence and are concerned mainly with the peaceful operations of production and commerce. In the long view then the organisation of industry, with all that it implies, is never ceasing and is basic to our organisation for war, since it provides the wealth without which no modern war can be waged. This has long been recognised by Germany. As far back as the Wars of the Roses the Hanseatic League possessed an organisation definitely intended to crush English trade and enhance the possibilities of German commerce.* That organisation, beneath all its mutations during five hundred years, has persisted if at times only as a dream, and was attaining fruition when war broke out.

To combat such a German organisation and to reconcile the conflicting claims of competing firms, varying industries, and opposed interests, the British organisation must have the sanction of the legislature and the administration—that is, Government must act in the matter. This will be seen to be the more necessary when we consider that any proposed organisation must be of a uniform nature, so that it neither favours nor depresses any industry or individual. It must be such as to include the whole Empire, locking it together in one solid union against the common enemy. It must be consistent with the parallel efforts of our Allies, and must as far as possible gain the sympathy of neutrals.

Above all it must be fearlessly anti-German. We have a choice between, on the one hand, the indifference and possible corruption which in the twentieth as in the fifteenth century has

* 'The Germans in England.' By Ian D. Colvin.

allowed our industry, our trade, and our wealth to pass in increasing measure under German control, and on the other an activity which will neutralise the insidious poison of German peaceful commercial permeation. If we choose the latter we can safeguard ourselves against any renewal of German armed aggression for the next hundred years. If we slumber on and remain indifferent we shall within the next twenty-five years be fighting again against Germany, which will have profited equally by her own experience and our indifference.

The nation must recognise and proclaim that the prime duty of a Government is to govern, and to govern so as to afford the maximum of protection to the taxpayer whose money is expended by the Government. No considerations such as have led the present Government, under the specious pretext of preserving a surface unity, knowingly to ignore the treasonable intention of Sinn Fein, will meet our requirements. The facts must be faced, and all theories which are not in accordance with those facts must be abandoned. Among these obsolete theories there are several which have produced the most pernicious effects. One of these is that a nation thrives only by the purchase of low-priced articles irrespective of the country of origin. Another is that all tariffs are necessarily injurious, and that to foster an industry is to raise those engaged in it at the expense of their fellows. A third is that it is a sign of prosperity to export raw materials to competing nations, and that such tokens of well-being become the more indubitable when indigenous capital can find no outlet in this country and goes abroad to be used in working up in those competing countries, and for their benefit, the raw material with which we are supplying them. A fourth is that the arts of peace have no relation to those of war, so that we in Britain ought to neglect to apply our scientific knowledge to processes bearing on war-like activity, and should complacently assure ourselves that such application on the part of other nations is a matter on which we may be congratulated.

We must abandon our so-called Free Trade; we must seek to retain in this country as far as possible our wealth both of raw material and capital; and we must so organise our industrial operations, and particularly our food supplies, as to be in a position to face any crisis with which enemy machinations may confront us.

The first thing we have to do then is to insist that Government shall make strict inquiry as to what industries have suffered from German competition and German intrigue, and shall take such steps, legislative or otherwise, as may be necessary to end this injurious influence. When a list of such industries has been prepared it will then be necessary to consider very seriously what

steps can be taken to revive or promote them. First and foremost we must encourage agriculture, and must aim at making our country as far as possible independent of outside supplies of food.

There will be in all probability a number of time-expired soldiers who will prefer out-door occupations to office and factory work. These we should settle on the land, and the conditions of settlement should be such as to afford a genuine attraction and a real incentive to exertion. A tenant, particularly a tenant of a soulless abstraction such as a County Council or Government Board, is certainly in a worse position than a permanent holder, and the recent recommendation of the Departmental Committee that the tenancy is the preferable status for a farm of whatever size, bears every appearance of being dictated by predilection rather than judgment. The second, and final, report of this Committee has been issued. It deals with the status of labourers and in no way modifies the recommendations as to tenancy put forward in the earlier report. It is utterly unjust that the English taxpayer should contribute largely towards the purchase of land to free the Irish peasant from the burdens of tenancy, whilst the Englishman in his own country is denied not only assistance but opportunity for a similar change of status. In this matter, as in so many others, the self-governing Dominions are a very long way ahead of the Home Government, which must throw over its ancient prejudices and learn from Australasia and Canada.

A large number of energetic small landholders, assisted by scientific and practical experts, would in a generation revolutionise our agricultural practice, and enormously increase our agricultural output. We may take the total white population of the Empire at about sixty millions. Of this number only some thirteen millions in all parts of the Empire are concerned with agriculture, whilst Germany, with no self-governing dominions, has considerably over twenty millions in its agricultural population. We have not yet educated our Government up to the full value of land in the United Kingdom, and its possibilities when properly developed. There is room for schemes of afforestation and reclamation. Much grass land could be brought back to arable cultivation, and closer settlement and intenser farming would add to both the health and wealth of our population. Government must make such arrangements as will facilitate co-operative dairying, fruit-farming, and poultry-keeping. The collection of produce from farms, and its speedy and economical transport to central depôts, will ensure a different and more effective way of marketing than the present with its spasmodic and irregular dispatches from individuals burdened by eccentric and unfair freight charges. These freight charges operate as a bonus in

favour of the foreign producer, and there is no reason at all why efficient motor transport should not, even without express legislation, bring the railway companies to their senses. But above all the agricultural industry must be organised, and organised with a view to supplying our needs and eliminating the wastefulness of unguided individual effort.

Whatever it is impossible to produce, or to produce in sufficient quantities, in these islands must be sought for in the Dominions, and we must see that the resources of those Dominions are fully utilised. They can for instance easily cultivate all the sugar we require, and that sugar would be the nutritious cane and not the unsatisfactory beet. Why should we depend for our supplies of so prime a necessity as sugar so largely on the enemy countries as we have done in the last thirty years?

On the question of sugar production I see it suggested that a tariff be imposed and that a preference be allowed to our Dominions of 50 per cent. and to allied countries of 12½ per cent. on all sugar exported to the United Kingdom. It is also suggested that the import of sugar, direct or indirect, from all enemy countries for a period of five years after the war should be prohibited. I greatly hope both these suggestions will be adopted. One great hindrance to reasonable regulation of our trade is the appalling ignorance of our Dominions and their products which exists among us, but if we can get through our proposed Ministry of Commerce and the co-operation of the Dominion Governments a scheme of Imperial publicity of a distinctly educational character dealing in this country with the products of the Dominions and in the Dominions with British manufactures, we shall have gone far on the right path. Such a scheme properly worked would repay many times over the necessary outlay, and would at the same time strengthen the natural bonds between us and the Dominions.

Mr. McKenna has admitted that in pre-war days we were mainly dependent on supplies of German and Austrian beet sugar. He omitted, however, to make the confession that this state of things was entirely due to half a century of so-called Free Trade. The bounty-fed foreign product ruined our Colonial sugar production for a number of years and put an end to our home refining industry. In the middle of the last century our sugar refineries were numbered by the hundred. Now they can be counted on the fingers. The Chancellor of the Exchequer made the further statement that sugar was not produced in any appreciable quantity in any part of the Empire. Yet our Empire produces over a third of the world's total supply of sugar. The West Indies, Queensland, Mauritius, India are among our sugar-producing Dominions and only require the inauguration of

proper arrangements to rise to a productive capacity equal to our demand. Is Mr. McKenna without knowledge of the facts and figures laid before Mr. Bonar Law by the Hughes deputation on the subject?

Having thus given due recognition to the fact that all human effort is dependent on adequate supplies of food we must next turn our attention to those matters which are connected with other industries than the agricultural, and we must first of all, as I have so often insisted, oust all German influence from finance, metal work, chemicals, dyes and drugs, toy making, coal, shipping.

We must continue such legislation and regulation as renders it impossible for any alien ever again to be a pilot for any part of the Empire. It is monstrous to think that among those who in former years were granted pilots' certificates for our most important harbours and estuaries were many who are now serving in the enemy's navy. Nor must any alien be permitted to become, or continue as, an officer of the mercantile marine. Legislation will also be necessary to prevent any citizens of the present enemy countries being shareholders in any company registered in any part of the British Empire, or holders of real property in any shape in Great Britain or any of the Dominions. Nor must we permit any longer Germans to be commercial travellers for British mercantile concerns, and equally no British Consul or Consular agent in any part of the world must be of German birth or extraction. The privilege of naturalisation in Great Britain or Ireland must be similarly abrogated, and for the next quarter-century no German of whatever rank or calling should be admitted to this privilege. Even more necessary is it that in the Dominions beyond the seas, particularly those immediately under the Crown, such as India and a great part of Africa, and also such important islands as Papua and Samoa, in which there are coloured populations, there should be no permission given for German missions and missionaries to carry on their conjoint religious and political propaganda. A lead has been given by such important bodies as the London Chamber of Commerce, which have resolved to request all German and Austrian members to resign, whether naturalised or not, and also to confine their future membership to British born and citizens of allied or neutral countries.

Having thus banged, bolted, and barred the door, not against our own kinsmen but against our enemies, we must so arrange our tariffs as to ensure that we get the full benefit of our legal exclusions. The object of such tariffs would be to foster our own industries, and so not only to benefit us from the economic point of view, but to prevent that insidious domination which was

part of the carefully prepared plan by which Germany intended to ruin us. As an alternative to a tariff there is of course the possibility of absolute prohibition of imports from the Central Empires, but so eminently expert a body as the Committee of the London Chamber of Commerce think that the exclusion so vital to our interests could be better attained by tariffs than by the prohibition of imports from any country, which might prove unworkable in practice. The Committee recommends a tentative tariff for consideration. This, they believe, will prove a useful basis for negotiations by the Government in the proper quarters. The suggested rates (which are subject to reservations and exceptions set out in the report) are as follows:—Wholly manufactured goods, maximum 30 per cent. *ad val.*, general 20 per cent. *ad val.*, minimum 10 per cent. *ad val.*; semi-manufactured goods and articles solely used as raw materials in industries, 15 per cent., 10 per cent. and 5 per cent.; manufactured food-stuffs, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., 5 per cent., and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; raw foodstuffs, 5 per cent., $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and free; raw materials, free; articles such as wines, spirits, beer, tobacco, etc., existing war rates or modifications thereof during period of suggested tentative tariff, plus 50 per cent. for enemy countries.

These proposals apply to (1) British Empire, (2) present allies, (3) friendly neutrals, (4) other neutral countries, and (5) enemy countries, and the duties, other than on raw materials, and present dutiable articles, might be allocated as follows:—British Empire countries, minimum rates (and free), less any percentage of duty these countries may accord as a preference to the Mother Country; present allies, minimum rates and free; friendly neutrals (giving United Kingdom most favoured treatment), general rates; other neutral countries (those giving preference to other foreign countries), general rates, plus surtax equal to preference given to other countries; enemy countries, maximum rates.

We have here proposals which form an admirable basis for legislative action. There are others emanating from highly responsible bodies, among which the Paris Conference of representatives of the Allies ranks high. These will be dealt with next month.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

(To be continued.)

TWO BLOCKADES: 1806 AND 1915-16

"THE British Isles are placed in a state of blockade," declared Napoleon in October, 1806, in his celebrated "decree of Berlin"; and forthwith issued his commands to Europe to boycott the Union Jack and confiscate all merchandise under its protection.

Bonaparte's genius for administration did not overlook even the smallest detail. Two days after signing the decree he wrote the following order to Marshal Junot, Governor of Paris:

"Take special care that the ladies of your establishment take Swiss tea; it is as good as that of China. Coffee made of chicory is no-ways inferior to that of Arabia. Let them use these substitutes in their drawing-rooms, instead of talking politics like Madame de Stael. Let them take care also that no part of their dress is composed of English merchandise. Tell that to Madame Junot; if the wives of my chief officers do not set the example whom can I expect to follow it? *It is a contest of life or death between France and England*; I must look for the most cordial support in all those by whom I am surrounded."

These were not merely idle words; the autocrat of Europe punished with death those who dared to smuggle anything imported by, or from, England, unless provided with a licence signed by him.

Meanwhile, Great Britain retaliated by three "orders in Council" enforcing a general blockade of the coast of France, and of her allies and dependants, a movement which produced a still more violent decree from Napoleon, subjecting to capture every ship of whatever nation that should sail from the ports of Britain, her colonies or places occupied by her troops, or should submit to be searched at sea by a British cruiser. "By this measure," said Lord Hawkesbury, then Advocate-General, "the French declared an imaginary blockade on the seas, and acted upon it in their condemnations on land, when they not only had not a single vessel at sea to maintain it, but their enemies were insulting them daily in their very harbours. Such a proceeding was as absurd as if England, without having a soldier on the

Continent, were to declare Bergen-op-Zoom or Lille in a state of blockade, and act upon this order by seizing goods belonging to citizens of those towns, wherever she could find them in neutral bottoms on the high seas."

Napoleon, however, though Trafalgar had bereft him of ships, had by his secret agreement with the Czar at Tilsit, intended to provide himself with a fleet without the trouble of building it. The discovery of the arrangement led to the seizure of the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, the high-handed, much-censured proceeding of the newly-elected British Government. The Duke of Portland and George Canning had not served under Pitt for nothing. "The success of the attack on Copenhagen was," said Fouché, "the first derangement of the secret articles in the treaty of Tilsit, by virtue of which the navy of Denmark was to have been at the disposal of France. Since the catastrophe of Paul * I had never seen Napoleon in such a transport of rage. That which struck him most in this vigorous *coup-de-main* was the promptitude and resolution of the English Minister.

The terms which the British Cabinet discovered to have been secretly agreed to at Tilsit by Napoleon and the Czar, contained nothing less than a menace to Great Britain's very existence. The published terms had indeed provided for the mediation of Russia between France and England, a feint of peace which the secret articles totally contradicted. By the secret agreement not only was the fleet of Denmark to be seized if not voluntarily surrendered, but that of Portugal also. When this *coup* had been effected the Russian navy was to come round from the Baltic and Black Sea to Brest and Antwerp, until a hundred ships of the line and two hundred thousand men were assembled in the Channel to attack Great Britain.

Antwerp, described by Bonaparte as "itself worth a kingdom," was hurriedly prepared to play her part in the invasion of England; already her ship-building yards were full and hard at work, twenty sail of the line being completed in them a few months after Napoleon's plans were frustrated and the Danish fleet seized by Britain. During his captivity in St. Helena Napoleon revealed to his faithful companion, Count Las Cases, his scheme for making Antwerp his base in an attack on England, and now that Antwerp—again in enemy hands—is being prepared for the same purpose, these plans, even though weapons of warfare have so radically changed, have a special interest. Recalling Napoleon's revelations Las Cases writes :

"He (the Emperor) said that he had done much for Antwerp, but nothing to what he proposed to have done.

* The assassination in 1801 of the Czar Paul, Bonaparte's ally against England.

By sea, he proposed to have made it a mortal point of attack against the enemy, by land he wished to render it a sure resource in case of great disasters—a true point of refuge for the national safety; he wished to render it capable of containing an entire army after defeat, and of resisting a year of open trenches, during which the nation might have risen in a mass for its relief.

“The world admired much the works already executed at Antwerp—its numerous dockyards, arsenals and wet docks; but all that was nothing—it was but the commercial town; the military town was to have been on the other bank, where the land was already purchased; three-deckers were to have been there constructed, and covered sheds established to keep the ships of the lines dry in time of peace. Everything there was planned on the most colossal scale. Antwerp was itself a province.”

“At Cherbourg too,” Las Cases continues, “magnificent works had been set a-going, where they had excavated out of the solid rock a basin capable of holding fifteen ships of the line and as many frigates, with the most splendid fortifications for their protection; the Emperor had intended to have prepared that harbour to receive thirty more line of battleships of the largest size. Innumerable works had been prepared to receive and protect the flotilla which was to be immediately concerned in the invasion of England; Boulogne was adapted to hold 2,000 gunboats; Vimereux, Etaples, and Ambleteuse, 1,000 more. The harbour of Flushing was to have been rendered impregnable and enlarged so as to hold twenty of the largest ships of the line.”

In arranging for the seizure of both the Danish and Portuguese fleets Napoleon could reckon on “Denmark falling into the arms of France,” from her well-known hostility to Britain’s naval policy. Not so with Portugal, who had always been the ally of England. A writer of a diary of that day puts graphically before us the means taken by Portugal to save her navy and to avert her impending fate.

Sweden being the only power in the north of Europe avowedly hostile to Napoleon, towards the close of the year (1807) his chief attention was turned to the south. This first appeared in his compelling Portugal to exclude our ships from her ports, a proclamation for which purpose was issued by the Prince Regent (of Portugal) on the 20th of October.

The Emperor of the French, indeed, had insisted on his imprisoning every British subject resident in his dominions and confiscating their property; but this iniquitous step, though it had a precedent in the conduct of him by whom it was ordered, he peremptorily refused to dishonour himself by taking. Accordingly all British merchants quitted the kingdom, and were enabled to remove their property. Whether in consequence of this refusal to obey the orders of Napoleon to their full extent, or as is more probable, conformably to a design previously adopted, a French army prepared to march on Lisbon, “to *meliorate the condition of the Portuguese.*” This circumstance and the avowed

intention of the Emperor of the French to deprive the Prince of all authority, induced the Royal family of Portugal, consisting of sixteen persons, to embark on the 24th of November for the Brazils. They took the whole of the Portuguese navy which could be gotten ready for sea, consisting of eight sail of the line, four frigates and some small armed vessels; with which, and thirty merchant ships, they set off on the 1st of December, accompanied by four British men-of-war.

By the escape of the Portuguese fleet Napoleon was deprived of the second wing of his hoped-for navy. His policy of blockade also did not have the effect he expected; prices in England did not rise appreciably until some years after it was declared. In 1810, farm accounts show wheat at £3 16s. 6d. a quarter (in 1801 it had stood at £8 8s.), and in May, the month of highest prices, potatoes were sold at only five shillings a sack. Commerce also flourished, because it was not long before a practice—not unheard of in this present war—was established on both sides, of granting licences to trade with the enemy. Downing Street thus annulled its own "Orders in Council," and Napoleon's "Continental System," which nominally excluded British ships from every port saving those in Sweden and Sicily, became by the sale of licences, instead of a blockade, a system of exaction. By 1812, "the Imperial smuggler at the Tuileries" is said to have collected as much as sixteen million pounds in hard cash by the sale of licences to trade with Great Britain.

A little over a hundred years later Great Britain is again experiencing another paper blockade, this time from the Imperial Pirate of Berlin. Napoleon ultimately achieved an estrangement between England and the United States. William of Prussia, aiming at the same object, has fortunately so far failed. When in 1807 Napoleon issued his Berlin decree, his fleet had been destroyed, and there was hardly a French warship on the sea to enforce it, therefore he declared an unprecedented blockade by land as well as by sea. When the Kaiser proclaimed his blockade in 1915 he had one of the greatest war fleets in Europe skulking behind the defences of Heligoland, and yet with this force at his disposal, he deliberately chose, under the plea of necessity, massacre on the high seas as his weapon.

Germany, by this course, broke both the Hague Conventions and all rules of civilised warfare; but the Hague Conventions, as also the unratified Declaration of London, and the earlier Declaration of Paris, were, as England now perceives, purposely designed by Germany, in furtherance of her war-preparations, to act like a spider's web—to enmesh and paralyse a formidable victim whom she dared not else approach, yet whose life-blood she designed to suck. One of Germany's avowed objects in her submarine murders was to secure the neutrality of the seas, and

to effect this object she has sunk, and attempted to sink, harmless neutral fishing boats and merchant ships, attacked a hospital ship, and sent to a watery grave the greater part of two thousand civilian passengers in the *Lusitania*, the first of many liners to suffer.

Even Hungary, Germany's own ally, expressed her horror at this great outrage on the laws of God and man. The *Pesti Futar*, a prominent weekly paper in Budapest, has published an article from the pen of M. Sander Nadas. This eminent Hungarian author and journalist tells us that he simply trembled when he read the *Lusitania* was sunk. "That great swimming city, which had her own streets, street corners, swimming baths, and tennis ground. She had everything on board but tramcars, and yet sank in twenty minutes. The German papers tell me I should rejoice over this German 'Victory,' but, though I have always heeded what the papers say, this time, somehow or other, I could not obey. I turned pale at the idea that an English-planned, German-made submarine had torpedoed the *Lusitania*, that two thousand people were shrieking in the water as they tried to avoid the inevitable death.

"How could these unfortunate souls be blamed for going about their business? Why had they to suffer because there is war between nations, and because a mad student murdered the Crown Prince of Austria, or because Austria deemed it necessary to begin a punitive expedition against Serbia? Why had these poor children to suffer because Germany hates England so much that words cannot be found to express it? Why had these children to be thrown into the water? They were not soldiers or marines, they were not trained or armed, why could they not have been allowed to land? I know that there is war, that England wants to starve out Germany, and yet I cannot rejoice over the murder of 2,000 women and children. When God or fate brought about the destruction of the *Titanic*, one questioned the Divine goodness. When men do it we are asked to rejoice. I refuse to do so, even if the whole German press shrieked it into my ears, for in reading the details of the sinking of the *Lusitania*, all the horrors of death seemed to pass before me. I could only weep over it and not rejoice. Whether the people were English or Americans, one can only pity them and curse the hand that brought it about."

How is it possible that neutral nations allow such things? Since the world began no worse barbarity has been heard of. The callous sinking of other vessels with the loss of all on board excited universal horror and reprobation, but the magnitude of the crime of the *Lusitania*, struck the world's imagination as demoniacal. If, as the Kaiser had said, Germany's future lies on

the sea, woe betide the nations of the earth. In all the brutalities of medieval maritime warfare; in the wars of religion, when Spaniards and Dutch sailors sewed up their enemy prisoners in sails and cast them overboard, neutral passengers were respected; it has been left for Germany of the twentieth century to endeavour to carry "kultur" through the world by barbarism hitherto undreamed of.

To this departure from civilised war, as it affects neutrals, the argument of Grey, the Foreign Secretary in 1807, might well apply. It was addressed to the Danish Minister:

"If an enemy adopts a new and unheard of mode of warfare, which affects alike its opponents and neutral States, and they submit without resistance to this novel species of hostilities, either from a feeling of terror or a desire of profit, they necessarily come under obligation to be equally passive in regard to measures of retaliation, which the party so assailed may think it necessary to adopt. If they act otherwise they lose the character of neutrality and become the disguised, but often the most effective and the most valuable, allies of the innovating belligerent."

It is to be hoped that Germany by her barbarities will actually throw neutral Powers into the arms of the Quadruple Entente, like the Irishman who burned the notes of an obnoxious banker in order to ruin his trade.

KATHARINE F. DOUGHTY.

THE COMING TRADE WAR*

No one interested in the question of British trade after the war, and who is not, should miss this excellent little text-book. The subject is divided by the joint authors into seven parts, and to each part is assigned a chapter. Especial attention is paid to Russian markets, and the great future that here lies before the British merchant is well and clearly set out. The German systems of protection and monopoly, of banking and credit, are dealt with in a most practical manner, and much interesting information is given as to the working of the Kartell. Essential reforms in our own methods of trading are enumerated, and the way paved for a great British boom as soon as hostilities cease. The urgency of moving now is aptly enforced, and the authors deserves every praise for performing a task patriotic in its conception and imperial in its aim.

* 'The Coming Trade War.' By Thomas Farrow and W. Walter Crotch. Chapman and Hall, Lim., price 2s. 6d. net.

SOME BRITISH INDUSTRIES

TEXTILES.

THE making of cotton goods is the chief manufacture in England, and has been for over a hundred years a highly specialised and well organised industry. Manchester cottons are known all over the world, and the export of cotton textiles and yarns in 1913 amounted to £127,000,000.

The cotton plant grows in hot damp countries, and the hairs on the seeds form the cotton. The hairs are pulled from the seeds by a machine called a gin, and are then packed in great bales and exported. The chief countries producing cotton are the United States, India, China, and Egypt. We obtain about 80 per cent. of our cotton from the United States, and about 15 per cent. from Egypt.

The manufacture includes two processes, spinning and weaving. Spinning consists in twisting the short hairs together to form yarn. This used to be done by a hand spinning wheel, but towards the end of the eighteenth century Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton invented spinning machines. A mass of the cotton wool is pulled out into a thin rope, and then passed through several machines, each of which gives it a twist, and draws it out, making it finer and finer. In weaving any textile a number of threads are arranged parallel to each other in a frame to form the warp. Other threads cross these at right angles, going under and over alternate ones to form the weft. Hand looms are still used in some countries for weaving, though power looms were invented in the early part of the nineteenth century.

Lancashire is the chief district for the cotton manufacture as it has plenty of coal and iron, a damp climate suitable for working the fibres, and a port trading with the United States. The manufacture is highly specialised, spinning being carried on in the south of the county and weaving in the north. Manchester is the centre for the manufacture; Bolton makes fine sewing cotton, and Oldham makes weaving cotton, while in the north Preston and Chorley make light materials, Blackburn and Accrington

make shirting, and Bolton makes dress material. As each town specialises in its own branch the goods are brought to greater perfection.

England used to be first in the world for cotton manufacture and supplied cotton goods to nearly all countries. Now the United States, India, Germany, and other countries make their own. In addition to this we spend about £6,000,000 in buying manufactured cotton goods from the Germans, and send them yarns which we might make up ourselves. In nearly all cases British goods are well made and of good quality, high wages are paid to the workers, and regulations are made for their welfare. These causes make British goods more expensive than the goods which are sent into England, whenever there is a surplus in another country, and sold often below cost to keep up prices in the foreign country. British manufacturers are now considering the making of cotton goods, plain, printed, and dyed which have hitherto been made in Germany, but they can only do this with profit if the home market is assured to them, and these low-priced foreign goods kept out by a tax on imports.

Wool is produced chiefly in Australia, New Zealand, the Argentine, and Russia, and we spend £9,000,000 in buying it from foreign countries and £28,000,000 in getting it from our colonies. Wool varies according to breed, climate, pasturage, and the part of the fleece from which it is taken. There are two kinds of wool, long and short staple. The long staple, or worsted, is about ten inches long and the hairs are combed before being twisted into yarn. The short staple consists of hairs of about two inches, and is carded. A woven worsted material shows the two yarns, warp and weft, but a woollen does not. The manufacture consists of—cleansing, combing or carding, spinning, weaving, and milling. Merino, serge and flannel are almost the only materials made of pure wool. Others are made of wool mixed with silk, cotton, or the hair of animals. Angora goat, Cashmere goat, alpaca, vicuna, llama, and camel have hair which is soft and firm, and can be used for making different kinds of cloth.

Yorkshire is the chief district for woollen manufacture, as it has coal and iron, soft water for washing and dyeing, and good ports. The manufacturing towns are nearly all within fifteen miles of Bradford. Leeds, Dewsbury, Batley, and Morley, make woollen goods, and Bradford, Huddersfield, Halifax and Keighley make worsted materials. Bradford is the chief town for dyeing.

As in the cotton trade, the specialisation enables each town to perfect its own industry, but the manufacturers need to work together, so that the spinners provide the weavers with yarn. At present we export wool and worsted yarns to the value of

£4,600,000 chiefly to Germany, and we spend over £2,000,000 in importing woollen manufactured goods which could easily be made in England. Though we get most of our wool from Australia, we import yarn to the value of about £2,000,000 from France, Belgium and Germany, and we are now feeling the failure of this supply. Our colonies could provide us with all the wool we need, and it would be to our advantage to make both yarn and material, and only export the finished goods. This industry also suffers from the selling of yarns and materials in England at a lower price than that of the country that produced them.

Ulster grows flax for the linen manufacture, but the Irish flax is only suitable for the medium qualities. Flax for fine linen is imported from Belgium, and for coarse linen from Russia. Belfast is the centre of the industry, and many other towns in Ulster are engaged in the manufacture. Coal can be imported from the Clyde coal-field, the soft water is useful for preparing the flax fibres, the climate is particularly suitable for bleaching, and Belfast has trade with other countries. The linen manufacture has suffered from the greater use of cotton, but linen materials wear better. Linen mesh has lately been introduced as a useful substitute for wool in underclothing. There is a great future before this as it is a preservative against colds and rheumatism. More varieties of linen material might be devised.

The export of apparel amounts to about £16,400,000 a year and the import to about £13,000,000. These almost cancel each other, but neither is altogether an advantage, as the ready-made clothing exported is generally a cheap production, which is made under unfavourable conditions. In the East End of London a great deal of clothing is given out as piece-work, to be made up by women in their own homes. This is so badly paid that it often leads to broken health, poverty, misery, and even crime. These quickly-made goods of common materials cannot wear well, and are often sold at little more than the cost of the materials, so that women and girls are wearing out their lives for goods that are scarcely worth buying. Even above this level dressmaking, tailoring, millinery, plain sewing and fancy work, and the making of underclothing are not well paid, though they all need a considerable amount of skill. Many girls have taste and skill in needlework, and would like to take up one of these industries, but find it scarcely worth while having the necessary training when the work is so badly paid. This means that our untrained dressmakers and milliners cannot rise beyond the ordinary style of work, and when fashionable and dainty goods are required, for which much money will be paid, they are obtained from abroad. French dressmakers, milliners and cooks

are noted all over the world, and Paris supplies all countries with dainty and fashionable goods, as dresses, hats, shoes, gloves, silk, lace, china, perfumes, carriages, and furniture.

The whole clothing industry in England should be placed on a well regulated and paying basis, and girls with taste and skill should be thoroughly trained, and then be able to begin work with a fair salary. Having had a good start they would gradually gain experience, and have a chance of passing into the higher well paid part of the business. English dressmakers and milliners could no doubt make the dainty creations for which so much money is paid, and if these were bought in England it would probably raise the whole needlework industry.

COAL TAR PRODUCTS.

When coal is heated in large closed ovens coal gas is given off and coke is left. With the gas comes a mixture of vapours and soluble gases. The vapours soon cool and run down into tar pits, after which the gas is passed through water to remove anything soluble. The insoluble coal gas, now free from volatile and soluble impurities, is collected in gasometers, from which it is passed under pressure through the pipes of houses. The water which dissolves the soluble gases is called gas liquor. It contains ammonia and sulphur compounds, and is the chief source of ammonia. The coke which remains in the oven is used for smelting the ores of metals. It gives out great heat in burning, but no flame, as the gases and volatile substances have been taken out of it. For this reason coke is a more economical fuel than coal, because when the latter is burnt the coal tar products and gases are also consumed.

The coal tar formed of the cooled vapours in the tar pit consists of a mixture of at least sixty different substances, which are separated by distillation. These are chiefly hydrocarbons, neutral, oily and inflammable. Many substances as vaseline, benzene, naphtha, dyes, etc., can be made from them. When distilled, coal tar gives off light, middle, and heavy oils and leaves a residue of pitch. The light oils consist chiefly of hydrocarbons, as benzene, toluene, and xylene; the middle of naphthalene and phenol or carbolic acid; and the heavy of anthracene. The hydrocarbons are oils and are used as solvents or as lubricating oils for machinery; carbolic acid is a disinfectant; pitch is used for coating wood to keep out water, and for making asphalt and a fuel called briquettes.

Nearly all the products of coal tar are used in the making of dyes, especially benzene, toluene, xylene, phenol, naphthalene, and anthracene. Aniline, which is the foundation of a large

number of dyes, is found in coal tar, but only in small quantities. In 1842 it was found that aniline could be made on a large scale by the action of nascent hydrogen on nitro-benzene, and soon after this the valuable dyes obtainable from it were discovered. Toluene is also needed for many of the aniline colours, and in 1868 dyes began to be made from alizarin, which is obtained from anthracene.

The art of dyeing was known long ago to the Egyptians, Phoenicians, Greeks and Romans, but for centuries only the vegetable dyes were used. Till the beginning of the seventeenth century woollen goods were sent to Amsterdam to be dyed. The first chemical dyes to be discovered were Scheele's green and Prussian blue, and after these the chromates. Later on many new colours were discovered, in tropical plants and woods, as indigo, logwood, litmus and turmeric.

The chief colours used were the following :—

Red.—Cochineal, lac, madder.

Yellow.—Chrome, iron peroxide, arsenic sulphide, turmeric.

Blue.—Indigo, woad, Prussian blue, logwood with copper salt, litmus.

Black.—Galls, logwood, tannin and gallic acid with iron salt.

Green.—Combination of blue and yellow, Scheele's green, chrome green.

Orange.—Red and yellow, sub-chromate of lead.

Brown.—Manganese, logwood with Lima wood.

Aniline dyes have superseded most of the older. These are artificially made, and the shades can generally be varied by adding more or less of each constituent, so that an infinite number of possible colours may exist. The first colour discovered was aniline mauve, found by Perkin in 1856, next magenta in 1860, and after that a number of colours. Most of these dyes are soluble in water, and the others in weak alcohol, acetic acid, or glycerine. They readily combine with silk and wool, but need a mordant for cotton materials. The following are the chief coal tar colours.

Yellow.—Martin's yellow from naphthalene, chrysaniline orange.

Red.—Magenta, a purple-red colour, is the starting-point for a series of colours, as safranine, aurine, coralline, and Biebrich's scarlet.

Blue.—Opal blue is the fastest colour, but it is not easily dissolved. Nicholson's blue, made from it by the action of sulphuric acid, is now used instead. Hoffman's violets are a series of ethyl derivatives of magenta, and vary from red to blue as the ethyl part increases. Mauve, or aniline violet, is made by oxidation of aniline, and different shades are obtained as the oxidation increases. Iodophenol blue is used as a substitute for indigo in calico printing.

Green.—Green may be obtained by dyeing with yellow and blue, either together or alternately. Aldehyde green is a brilliant colour and is often used for silk, but it easily changes and so is made as required. Hoffman's green is an ethyl or methyl derivative.

Brown.—Bismarck's or phenylene brown is useful for wool or silk, but it does not wash.

Black.—Aniline black is used in marking ink, as jetoline, and for dyeing yarns, but not for wool or silk material.

Most of the dyes are also used for coloured inks.

The dye is dissolved in hot water, which must be pure and free from lime salts. The yarn or material is thoroughly washed before being dyed. Silk fibres are covered with a gummy substance called silk glue. This is removed by boiling in water for several hours, after which it is boiled in a soap bath. Silk and wool absorb the dye so readily that the solution left is often colourless. Weak acids are added if the colour is not readily taken up, and salts are often added to the dye bath to make the colour fast. If the material is not affected by the dye, a mordant is added, that is a substance which makes the two combine. Mordants may be metallic, as the hydrates of iron, chromium, aluminium, tin, and lead, or organic, as oil and soap.

There are many processes connected with the dyeing and finishing of textiles that need scientific research and skilled knowledge. The chemical properties of the fibres and the dyes must be understood, as well as the action of various chemicals and processes, and the preparation of one product from another.

Aniline dyes have been chiefly made in Germany, and this has been one of its most paying industries. It is now proposed to establish this industry in England, and if a guarantee is given to protect the new industry, it is likely to be started in several places. This will be worth a great deal to us, and will give employment to more than a million people. It will need however highly trained men and expert chemists, as there is much still to be discovered, and valuable research work to be done.

E. C. ABBOTT.

(To be continued.)

HISTORIC LANDMARKS OF CANADA

THE Historic Landmarks Association of Canada has issued its report for the year 1915. This society was formed a little more than a year ago and has been active from its formation. Until the conclusion of the war the Association will not recommend the further marking of historical places owing to the expense involved, but throughout the past year it has been compiling a "Directory of Sites." The achievement of this was facilitated by the co-operation of corresponding members in all parts of Canada and elsewhere. For a comparatively new country it is remarkable how many of these sites have to be recorded and how many that were in danger of being forgotten are now being brought to light. Obviously there is danger in delay where the compilation of such a record is concerned.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

THE Military Hospitals Commission at Ottawa has under consideration the question of training disabled soldiers in all branches of work. The Vocational Secretary who recently returned from a tour of the Western Provinces, reports that the Commission has been able to secure the services of the leading technical educational experts in each province, and that classes have been started in connection with the convalescent Hospitals in Winnipeg, Regina, Calgary and Victoria, for instruction in general subjects, clerical work, arts and crafts, gardening, poultry-keeping and other work suitable for disabled men. A large new convalescent hospital is to be opened at Deer Lodge, Winnipeg, a suburban hotel, which has been placed at the disposal of the Commission by its owner.

SERGEANT C. W. NIEMEYER, the Empire's champion recruiter, is now in Canada securing men for overseas service. Niemeyer, who enlisted in Alberta and came to England with the first contingent from Canada, was severely wounded at St. Julien. Before he had fully recovered from his wounds he addressed street gatherings in London with such marked success that he was retained as a recruiting officer and became quite a well-known figure at most of the important points in the city. In a few months he is said to have secured over 8,000 men as a result of his addresses. Recently the Canadian Militia authorities sent him to Canada, and he is now making recruiting speeches in various cities in Ontario, later on he will visit other parts of the Dominion. His personal experiences at the front have provided him with plenty of anecdotes.

SOMETHING of the magnitude and immensity of the work being done by the Vancouver branch of the Canadian Red Cross Society, through its ward branches and auxiliaries in Greater Vancouver and its subsidiary branches in the interior of the province, may be gathered from the fact that the central supplies depôt has received, classified and shipped to headquarters at Toronto and England a grand total of 13,777,812 large and small articles for the men at the front. Needless to say all the other provinces have been equally energetic, and the amount of good thus accomplished cannot readily be overestimated.

THE reports of the Lumber Commissioners, appointed to represent British Columbia in London, Toronto and Regina indicate that there is

the prospect of a large market for the forest products of British Columbia in Eastern Canada. The Toronto Commissioner is now undertaking an educational campaign in the east of the Dominion in order to have Douglas fir from British Columbia more widely utilised. Douglas fir and British Columbian cedar are especially attractive for interior finishing. On the prairies these woods are already largely used. There is every indication that a marked improvement in the building trade is likely to take place all over the prairie, and already there is an improvement in the lumber situation. Farmers are everywhere extending their buildings and putting up better dwelling-houses.

DURING one week 390 persons entered Canada from the United States, with cash amounting to £39,812, and effects valued at £9,486, as compared with 263 persons in the same week last year, with cash totalling £13,590. During the week following 611 persons entered from the United States with £38,081 cash and effects valued at £9,243, as compared with last year's record for the same period of 375 persons with £18,331 in cash. These figures give a total of 1,001 new settlers from the United States into Canada within a fortnight, and of these over 300 were farmers. There can be no doubt that last year's crop was about the best advertisement that Western Canada has ever had, and but for the war there would probably be an enormous influx of settlers.

THE opening up of the Peace River country in Western Canada by rail will not only effect an increase of settlement but will lead to the development of the coal fields. "There are," says a correspondent, "lots of soft coal a good deal superior to that mined at Edmonton. Indeed it is claimed to be as good as Galt coal. We expect the railway will be extended south-west to the coal fields. The coal in our district is now sold at 6s. and 8s. a ton at the mine, and it is dug out by hand. It is good soft coal, and if left lying out of doors won't slack to any appreciable extent. There are out-croppings of coal on all the rivers in the north, which shows how rich the country is in this form of mineral wealth."

IN connection with efforts now being made to sow larger areas to wheat in France, the French Department of Agriculture publishes accounts of experiments in the use of seed-wheat from Manitoba. It is considered possible to sow in certain departments of France, the Haute-Marne for instance, spring wheats from Manitoba possessing robustness and early ripening habit up to a later date than the local French varieties usually sown, and thus a larger area under wheat is possible. The Manitoba wheats can, it is stated, be sown without risk up to April 15th. Experiments with these wheats sown in France since 1912 have given results as good as the locally acclimatised spring wheats and better than mediocre yields from winter-sown varieties. The French Government have guaranteed growers of wheat of 33 francs per quintal (about \$1.73 per bushel at the present exchange) for all the spring wheat they grow, and it is thought that with this encouragement the sowings this year will be relatively large.

"THE demand for nickel and copper, due to the war, has been insatiable, and the Sudbury (Ontario) mines have shown a capacity for meeting the requirements which could scarcely have been anticipated." Such is the statement made in the report of the Ontario Provincial Bureau of Mines for the first three months of 1916. "The output of nickel and copper in the matte was 50 per cent. greater than in the first three months of 1915. If the present rate of production is maintained through the year, 1916 will see about 40,000 tons of nickel and 22,000 tons of copper turned out by the smelters in the Sudbury district, as against 34,000 tons of nickel and 19,600 tons of copper in 1915." The increase in the yield of gold was 31,511 ounces, worth about £131,774. Compared with the rate of production for the whole of last year the advance was less marked, but developments now under way are likely to lead to a substantial increase.

DURING the fiscal year ended March 31st the value of Canadian goods exported to New Zealand amounted to £714,890 as compared with £585,874 in the corresponding period for 1915. The figure is remarkable when the scarcity of tonnage is considered in conjunction with the fact that over the entire period the people of Canada were more concerned with the manufacture of munitions of war than with the arts of peace.

Good progress is being made with the co-operative selling of Western Canadian wool. The warehouse for Saskatchewan, which opened in June, remained open until the end of July. An experienced grader was installed by the Dominion Government, and the province handled in this way between 200,000 and 225,000 lbs. of wool. Manitoba has received the first shipments and the grader for that province also is at work. Saskatchewan has comparatively few range sheep and the bulk of the wool from that province is of a very high quality. This year it is hoped to receive a much higher price than formerly as a result of the grading.

THE official bulletin of Canadian Sea Fishery Statistics shows that in all Canada there were landed during the fiscal year ended March 31, 1916, 438,916 cwt. of lobsters, valued at £524,729, of which 111,301 cwt. were shipped in the shell and 163,783 cases canned. During the preceding twelve months the catch reached 388,872 cwt., valued at £555,186, of which 85,639 cwt. were shipped in the shell and 151,681 cases canned. The fishing industry of New Brunswick, owing to the large increase in the catches of cod in 1915, showed a large gain over the preceding year, notwithstanding the continued decrease in the catches of smelts, lobsters, mackerel and other standard varieties.

ALBERTA'S cheese-making industry made rapid strides during the past year. Thirteen cheese factories turned out 372,693 lbs. of cheese, as compared with 70,581 lbs. made in five factories during 1914. An interesting feature in connection with the cheese production is that 50 per cent. of the past season's output was manufactured in the city dairies of Calgary and Edmonton. The creamery business of the province also made marked progress during the year, the creamery butter

production being 7,400,000 lbs. as compared with 5,450,000 lbs. for the previous year. The fact that nearly all the creameries showed a considerable increase in their butter output further demonstrates that mixed farming and dairying are steadily gaining ground in this as in the other "prairie provinces."

THE shortage in paper, chemicals, and other supplies, for which the war has been responsible, has demonstrated the self-supporting possibilities of the Empire. The paper-making capabilities of Canada have been brought prominently to the front, and the industry there has received an impetus, the effects of which it is believed will remain after the conditions which brought it about have disappeared. From the Kaolin clay deposits in Quebec it is stated that the United States import annually over 300,000 tons of raw material, while the consumption in Canada is about 22,000 tons according to the last Government report. Owing to the conditions caused by the war there are practically no shipments from England, and the demand on the Canadian mines by American paper manufacturers is enormous. Clays used in paper-making are now realising very much enhanced prices.

THE 1915 copper production of British Columbia is said to have been the greatest in the history of the province, exceeding that of 1912, the previous record year, by about 6,500,000 lbs. This satisfactory condition of things is mainly due to the increased production of the Granby Company's smelter at Anyox. The copper production of the different districts is placed at: Skeena 21,861,340 lbs., Boundary 17,520,334 lbs., Southern Coast 10,736,086 lbs., Rossland 4,616,776 lbs., Omineca 2,822,000 lbs., other districts 348,952 lbs. Copper forms 49.7 per cent. of the total mining production of the province.

THE shortage of the potato crop in Eastern Canada and California has been taken advantage of by British Columbia, and, without any special preparation for entering the trade, that province, in six weeks, had exported a total of 43,594 sacks of potatoes weighing approximately 2,000 tons. The market is still far from satisfied, and large quantities of potatoes continue to be exported to Eastern Canada.

MR. J. MURRAY GIBBON, whose first novel, 'Hearts and Faces,' has just made its appearance, was born in Ceylon in 1875. Educated at school and college in Aberdeen, he passed on with an exhibition to Christ Church, Oxford, where after four years he graduated with first-class honours in "Greats." After spending some years in connection with journalism and art he entered the service of the Canadian Pacific Railway, in which he now holds a responsible position. Mr. Gibbon is the second son of Sir William Gibbon of Bournemouth. Dealing as it does with student life at a Scots University, followed by artist life in London and Paris, 'Hearts and Faces' is not the kind of novel one might expect from the pen of a Canadian railroad official, but Mr. Murray Gibbon writes from intimate personal knowledge, and he has produced a remarkable book. The publishers are John Lane, London, and the price six shillings.

THE Ontario Hydro-Electric Commission now supplies electric power in many areas. In Oxford County the Commission has agreements with individual farmers for the use of current. There is a service charge of \$3 per month where there are three users per mile, \$2.50 per month where there are four users per mile, and \$2 per month where there are five users per mile. In addition to that there is a charge for the current actually used. In practice the charge for two-horse-power per year works out at \$70 to \$85. This power will light the house and out-buildings, run sewing machine and washing machine in the home, heat irons for ironing, make toast or coffee and sweep the floors. In the barn and home it will pump the water, in the barn it will also pulp roots, run the fanning mill and grain crusher and milk the cows. With a five-horse-power motor an individual silo-filling outfit or small thrashing machine can be operated.

SOUTH AFRICA

THE Gordons' Fund for British soldiers' and sailors' widows and orphans has now reached £10,000, £3,000 of which amount has been contributed by residents of the Cape Peninsula. In view of the large number of promises of regular monthly contributions to this fund which are continuing to reach the Gordons from various parts of the Union, the responsible committee held a special meeting at the Gordons' Institute to consider certain suggestions for the administration of moneys raised in South Africa. Trustees were nominated, and a further communication has been despatched to the High Commissioner for the Union in London and to the Trustees of the Royal Patriotic Society. The Red Cross South Africa supplied 10,000 cigarettes to the wounded Anzacs on the *Athenic* en route for New Zealand.

THERE are several brands of patriotism, but perhaps the self-sacrifice made by the Members of the General (Native) Council is one of the highest. Despite the fact that new road construction was required in several districts, and several buildings, etc., at the various institutions, the Members resolved to forgo these services this year in order to invest £5,000 in Government war stock, and thus do a little bit to help the Empire.

A DIAMOND weighing 317 carats has recently been found in the De Beers Mine. This is the largest diamond yet found in that particular locality.

THE amount spent on rolling stock by the several Railway Administrations to the date of Union was £13,082,852, and at December 31st, 1915, this had grown to £15,040,642, an increased expenditure of nearly £2,000,000. Apart from the additions to stock on Capital Account, a further outlay from the Renewals Fund of £4,092,897 was expended since Union. A large proportion of stock was built at the railway workshops within the Union, and the efforts of the Administration are directed to increasing the proportion as opportunities offer, with reasonable regard to economy. Rolling Stock—Ninety-four new locomotives were

placed in service during the year at a cost of £616,175. Expenditure amounting to £971,676 was also incurred for the provision of new coaching and wagon stock, placed in traffic during the same period. From time to time the Administration is subjected to much criticism as to a scarcity of rolling stock to meet the trade requirements of the Union, but it will be noted from the above statement that during the year additional coaching and wagon stock to the extent of nearly £1,000,000 in value was placed in traffic.

DURING the year 1914 there were manufactured in the Union 806,626 cases of explosives. The factories manufacturing these explosives employed 845 Europeans and 1,856 coloured workers. It was stated in 1912 that De Beers saved £60,000 per annum as the result of the establishment of the dynamite factory at Somerset West.

THE Director of Veterinary Research to the Government of the Union of South Africa announces that a preventative for horse sickness has been discovered. This is by means of inoculation with virus and serum. So far his Department had succeeded with 85 per cent. of cases treated.

THE Reenen Irrigation Scheme along the Gamtoos River Valley in the Humansdorp District, Province of the Cape of Good Hope, was recently opened. The total cost of the scheme, which has taken three years to complete, was £25,800. The total number of morgen irrigable under the scheme is approximately fifteen hundred (slightly more than 3,000 acres) and increases the value of fallow land from £5 to £75 per morgen. The Reenen Scheme forms one of three schemes for diverting water from the Gamtoos River and placing under irrigation large tracts of fertile land hitherto uncultivated.

THE following were among the resolutions adopted at the Annual South African Maize Conference: That the Government be impressed with the absolute necessity for collecting accurate statistics as regards grain production. That the standard grades of maize be fixed on the existing basis, and that no alterations be sanctioned unless it be found necessary from time to time to create new grades to meet demands. That the Trades Commissioner in London be asked to urge the more extensive use of maize in England by pointing out the many purposes for which maize is used in America. That in view of the test made with wet maize, the maximum moisture content of 12½ per cent. be maintained.

THE annual congress held hitherto with the object of focussing attention on methods of cultivation having for their object the conservation of water in the soil, and learning at first hand, results obtained from the employment of these methods, did not take place last year. Evidence continues to reach the Department from time to time of greater yields per acre on account of better cultivation on the principles of dry-land farming, and of the extension of cultivation in consequence. Incidentally the principles advocated also lead to greater use of up-to-date agricultural implements. The resistance to rust of different

varieties of wheat and oats continue to be tested, and some good results have already been obtained.

NEW ZEALAND

THE demand for women workers has naturally increased, as each successive contingent of men has left for the front, and is likely to become more apparent still now that compulsion is in force. Fortunately the women's branch of the National Reserve got ready for any emergency some time ago, and in Wellington, the capital city, alone several thousand women enrolled in response to a registration card setting out the details of the scheme. The card enumerated the different branches of employment in which shortage of labour was likely to occur, such as clerical work, shop and factory employment, domestic duties, professional occupations, and farming, and each person enrolling was requested to state what branch she desired to work in, and the amount of time she could devote to it. The practical value of the scheme was at once demonstrated when farmers applied for and got women fruit-pickers and packers, and these, having received special instruction from the State orchardist, were able to save very large quantities of fruit that but for them must have been allowed to waste.

THIS amusing story comes from Egypt. In the fighting against the Senussi on Christmas Day a British monitor was on hand and kept a running fire on the agile Arabs. After the scrap a New Zealand non-com. was struck with an inspiration. There was no tobacco in camp, and he thought it would be a pretty good notion to hold up the quartermaster on the gunboat for some plug and cigarettes for his platoon. He was on his way thither when he was confronted by a stern British officer, who halted him, desiring to be informed as to his mission. "I am going aboard to get some tobacco for my platoon," replied the youngster. "You are a New Zealander, aren't you?" questioned the officer. "Yes, sir," responded the swaddy. "Well, it's like your damned impudence. You New Zealanders are more trouble to us than the whole British Army!" "That's what the Senussi say, sir," was the prompt reply of the Maorilander. "Carry on!" exclaimed the breathless martinet, waving a permissive arm towards the ship.

SINCE the inception of the Imperial meat supply scheme over £8,000,000 has been paid on purchases from New Zealand, which comprised 544,583 quarters of beef, 2,815,016 carcasses of mutton, and 3,985,789 carcasses of lamb, besides large quantities of pieces of mutton and boneless beef.

OF the 40,000,000 acres of occupied land in New Zealand 30,000,000 acres are under grass, over 60 per cent. of this being natural grass.

It is probable that, following on the undoubted benefits in the health and general fitness of the scholars in fresh air schools, more of these will shortly be established in New Zealand. Apart from health, one of the advantages of this type of school is that the outdoor life makes it necessary for the children to have more freedom in moving about, so that work

tends to become more rational, and meets the requirements of the growing child a good deal better than the orthodox schools, where they have to sit still. Another point of value is that these schools do not necessitate expensive buildings.

ADVICES by the last mail showed that there is still practically no prospect of obtaining export shipping space for the congested supplies of hemp in New Zealand. Quantities are coming in as usual to the merchants, who have now large stocks on hand, and unfortunately there is very little storing space for this commodity. All the space that the Auckland Harbour Board could provide on its wharves has been taken up, and much more is wanted. The flax mills in the Manawatu district have been closed for some months, and it is feared that the Auckland mills must close down some months before their usual time. And meanwhile, Manila hemp offered on the London market is fetching record prices!

A TRIBUTE that the Prime Minister of the Dominion paid to New Zealand politicians recently for their loyal observance of the party truce is well merited. There has been a degree of co-operation and mutual confidence amongst Ministers in the National Cabinet, which two years ago would have been considered almost impossible. The rank and file of the parties have also completely sunk old-standing rivalries in a manner that has done more to give politicians a reputation for sincerity than all the party bickering of years.

THERE have recently been found on Stewart Island, New Zealand, some very fine samples of molybdenite. Particular interest is attached to this sample of the famous steel-hardening mineral so much coveted by Germans prior to the war and used by Krupp's at Essen. The specimen was found in Stewart Island quartz, and the same sample returned on assay some five ounces of silver to the ton.

THE Secretary for Labour (New Zealand) recently convened a conference of six inspectors appointed under the Footwear Regulation Act 1913. These officials are now at work and are making valuable initiatory investigations among manufacturers and retailers. Under the Act sellers of footwear are required to stamp all goods that are not made of leather. Each retailer called upon has been given two months to do so, and the result will be that the public will in future have a surer guide as to the quality of the material they are buying.

A NUMBER of business men in Christchurch, New Zealand, were astonished to receive a couple of months ago payment in full for claims on a bankrupt's estate, the bankruptcy in question dating back about ten or twelve years. The explanation is interesting. The bankrupt's son, who was killed in action at the landing on Gallipoli, in his will provided for the payment of his father's creditors from his own estate. The son's action is all the more noteworthy in view of the fact that, in addition to the bankrupt having obtained his discharge, the money was no longer recoverable, owing to the operation of the Statute of Limitations.

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NATIONAL EDUCATION

ON education depends the style of national life—whether it is sound and healthy, or whether it is corrupt and vicious; whether it is reactionary and stagnant, or whether it is practical, broad-minded, and alert. True education aims at the full development morally, mentally, and physically of the pupil; it is distinguished by high ideals, and is not merely an instrument for producing an efficient machine—a machine which will achieve material success, but which is without spiritual and intellectual life. True education has a soul, and whatever seeks to debase that soul, to stifle it, is false.

The present war has subjected our national system of education, in common with our other national institutions, to a severe test, and we cannot say that our principles have been found wanting. For this struggle has thoroughly shown that the national spirit is not degenerate; that great though our failings may be the spirit of the race is sound; in other words, the broad principles of our education have justified themselves since they have produced men inspired by a devoted conception of duty.

Nevertheless, we are fully conscious that these principles have not always been rightly applied; that methods have frequently been faulty, and that there is room for great reform in this respect. The ideal remains the same—the rearing of citizens of sterling worth; but to realise this ideal to the full we require to vitalise and develop our methods.

What is the cardinal principle of modern British education? That every child, no matter how poor, shall be taught, and that if he shows ability he shall have the power to continue his studies even up to the university standard.

That is a sound and just principle, and the elementary schools of our land have been founded to give effect to it. At the time of the 1870 Act, the object of these schools was defined as the teaching of "the three r's"—reading, writing, and arithmetic. Such a course was obviously a great advance on the previous educational neglect of the poor, but it was not sufficient—it was too narrow. Unless a child possesses an exceptional thirst for knowledge such a limited curriculum will leave him very imperfectly equipped mentally. Even under the 1870 code, in fact, such subjects as history and grammar were included, and the course has been gradually made more liberal, until to-day we have run to the other extreme—a curriculum which gives a child a smattering of knowledge rather than sound knowledge on vital subjects.

I conceive that the course provided at an elementary school should be simple, but that it should be thorough and should be liberal in a simple sense. Reading, writing, and arithmetic obviously lay the foundations of an educational course. Grammar, English literature, and composition are similarly essential. A sound knowledge of national and Imperial history is important and will do more to foster patriotism than all the Empire Day celebrations ever held. History should not be rendered repulsive by mechanical dry-as-dust teaching, by inordinate stress upon dates and the skeleton of facts rather than upon the living principles and issues underlying those facts. The subject demands enthusiasm from the teacher, personality, and a high gift of imagination. National geography, again, is important. The child should be thoroughly taught the resources, the manufactures, and the great systems of communication existing in the United Kingdom and the British Empire. World geography should hold a secondary place. A sound knowledge limited to our own country and Empire is to be preferred to a smattering of information about the five Continents in general, and a still more vague conception of the United Kingdom in particular—a somewhat common experience nowadays.

Theoretical science should be purely elementary, and should be limited to a knowledge of the laws of health, and of the common phenomena of nature. Any advance beyond this standard makes the curriculum needlessly elaborate, and discourages thoroughness. Such additional classes as Art classes should be discontinued for the same reason. The latent artist is born, not made, and is not very commonly met with. Where he exists he will find opportunities of expression in his leisure hours, and as in the past so in the future will discover means of developing his talent. For the ordinary child the instruction is wasted.

Thus the purely intellectual curriculum should be strictly limited to reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, English literature and composition, history, geography, and elementary science. Such a syllabus would provide a generous education, and would give proper facilities for thorough instruction.

We now come to the question of religious teaching—a subject of acute periodical dissension since the introduction of the first Education Bill. Of recent years opinion in favour of the secular solution of the quarrel has somewhat strengthened. It is a simple solution, but it is also a lazy one. A sound religious training is a bed-rock on which to found intellectual acquirements, and whilst this should be provided in the home, if it is omitted the school is the only place where the defect to some extent can be remedied. It would, therefore, be a serious national misfortune if religious instruction were banished from the schools.

The Nonconformist ideal is that of “simple Bible teaching,” and assistance from the rates in support of any particular denomination is objected to. Now the difficulty with which we are faced is a satisfactory definition of the phrase. Bible teaching necessarily involves interpretation, explanation. Unless the teacher is content with the enunciation of such elementary moral principles as those contained in the Ten Commandments the note of doctrine and of dogma is bound to creep in. It is impossible to found even a purely personal creed on the Bible without recourse to clearly defined and contentious principles. The student may believe in the fullest liberty of individual judgment, and may insist on the comparative unimportance of dogma, but in arriving at his own personal conclusions he has had recourse to a process of deduction which leads him far from axiomatic first principles. A live religious belief cannot be built up without doctrine.

Consequently, if religious instruction is to be of any real value denominational teaching is essential. The present system is unsatisfactory because in one class of school the teaching is of the negative, colourless order I have described, and in the other one particular creed is taught at the public expense. Probably the fairest system would be the establishment of the principle that equal facilities must be granted to all denominations in schools supported by the rates. Thus the local minister of each sect would take his own particular class.* Purely denominational schools would be at liberty to retain their purely denominational teaching provided they received no assistance from the rates. In

* Presumably the various Protestant Nonconformist sects could sink their minor differences and accept in each locality one minister to act as common instructor.

single-school areas, however, they should be dependent on public support, and the system I have just suggested would then apply. All purely denominational schools would be open to Inspectors from the Board of Education, and in the event of the Board being dissatisfied with the standard of efficiency in any particular school there should be liberty to make that school dependent on the rates, and thus liable to afford equal facilities to all sects. Such a policy would be really fair, whilst by placing religious instruction definitely in the hands of ordained ministers the quality and value of the teaching would be immensely improved.

Of recent years there has been a welcome development of the technical side of elementary education. This is a branch which should be encouraged as much as possible. Each school should have its domestic science course for girls, and there should be classes of instruction for boys in the principal manual trades. Pupils should be placed on the work for which they showed most aptitude. By a thorough course of training the evil of "blind alley" occupations would be reduced considerably, and the drift into unsuitable employment would largely be prevented if Labour Exchanges co-operated with headmasters to find satisfactory work for lads leaving school.

Finally on the side of physical training there is room for large reform. Presumably after the war every school—elementary, secondary, and public—will have its compulsory cadet corps, and this will greatly reduce the evil street life to which town children are so frequently condemned. During late years most of the big municipalities have recognised the importance of alleviating the squalor of city courts by a more liberal provision of public parks. Much, however, remains to be done in this direction, and I should like to see a cautious experiment made with the provision of playgrounds for elementary schools, and the organisation of school cricket, football, tennis, and hockey teams. It is a bold suggestion—in the Liverpool Corporation area, for example, there are 165 elementary schools—and only a very cautious beginning could be made. It is an ideal for the future. Only by a healthy outdoor training can we hope to rear vigorous and right-minded citizens. The squalor and the vicious allurements of child street life in our big towns must be combated. Compulsory cadet corps would be one important step in the right direction; organised school games would be a valuable second.

In order, however, to obtain the fullest benefit from a comprehensive system of education it is essential that the age for compulsory attendance at school should be extended to sixteen. At present far too many children leave school just at the critical age when the mind is beginning to open out. Their mental and moral growth is thus all too often permanently stunted.

Compulsory education up to sixteen years of age would tend to remove this evil.

Furthermore, there should be compulsory continuation classes in intellectual subjects for pupils between sixteen and eighteen years of age, and compulsory cadet corps should be attached to these classes. In the case of girls domestic science training should be continued in this course, but technical training would not appear necessary for lads, since they would be at some recognised trade, and would be receiving instruction in their craft in their ordinary course of employment. The cadet drills should take place in the evenings after working hours and on Saturday afternoons, but the other classes should be held either in the morning or the afternoon. Such an arrangement seems necessary, since evening classes find the pupils jaded after a full day's work, and therefore in no condition to derive real benefit from the instruction. Probably attendance three days a week either in the morning or in the afternoon—whichever time was more convenient to the employer—would be sufficient. Thus regulated, employers would be able to accept the system with a minimum of inconvenience, whilst the practice would help materially to foster sound and lasting results from the previous years of school instruction.

This would be the ordinary course of elementary education—a minimum to which every child would be entitled. But a pupil showing special promise in intellectual work should, as at present, have the opportunity of winning a free scholarship to a secondary school, and subsequently of gaining a University scholarship. Similarly special aptitude in a technical subject should be rewarded by a free course of higher technical instruction, thus enabling the pupil to take a more valuable position when he had completed his training, and thus giving every encouragement and support to boys of an inventive turn of mind.

Elementary education should be rendered more simple, but more thorough. The average child should be thoroughly fitted for the place he will occupy in life, whilst the scholar of exceptional ability should be given every opportunity to develop his mind, and to improve his position. The nation has need of its best brains, and potential capacity, whether mental or technical, should be encouraged to the utmost.

When we turn to secondary and public school education we find that hitherto an important distinction has existed in the nature of the instruction. In elementary education of late years technical training—avowedly practical and utilitarian training—has played a prominent part. In our higher education technical instruction has been largely non-existent. There has been a perfectly valid reason for this difference. A big pro-

portion of the pupils in the elementary schools live in very unfavourable surroundings. Their struggle in life in any circumstances will be hard and severe, and unless they be equipped at school with some knowledge of manual work they will enter the labour market under very disadvantageous conditions; they will almost inevitably drift into unskilled, uncertain, and ill-paid employment. Consequently this technical training is necessary and justifiable. Further, most of the pupils are not suited for more than a comparatively simple intellectual curriculum. Instruction in the higher branches of knowledge under present circumstances is wasted effort; the children are not capable of the mental grasp required. In the higher schools, on the other hand, these difficulties do not as a rule exist. The pupils, as a class, live under conditions sufficiently favourable to enable them to benefit from the more complex studies which are taught, and the best equipment for their after life is consequently to be found in a curriculum which aims at a higher standard of general culture rather than in a syllabus largely technical and utilitarian.

If, however, we consider this secondary and public school education more in detail we observe that both share one cardinal defect with our present system of elementary education. Thoroughness is impossible because frequently the curriculum is too extensive. Consequently a smattering of knowledge is acquired instead of really sound scholarship. This evil is mainly due to our present system of examination. The Boards insist on a syllabus so extensive as absolutely to prevent a real mastery of the subject being gained in the time available. For example, in Modern History the London Matriculation standard requires a knowledge of the whole period from the accession of the House of Tudor. How is it possible adequately to cover the ground in the year available for the work? It is obvious that the teacher can only present the period in the most skeleton form, and the pupil simply becomes acquainted with a hotch-potch of dates, and the bare outline of the main events. Detailed knowledge of the tremendous issues involved and of the vital causes and effects of great movements is impossible. Consequently a subject of the highest importance becomes largely valueless, and repels rather than attracts nine out of every ten pupils. This is a typical instance, and radical reform is essential. The rule of "Thorough" should be insisted on, and to this end the course set for examination should in many cases be much reduced. Examining Boards are not readily amenable to outside pressure, and whilst most headmasters probably deplore the present methods they seem powerless to force amendment. If necessary the Board of Education should be granted authority to interfere, and should use that authority effectively.

But, particularly in regard to our public schools, there have of late years been heavy attacks on the actual scope of the curriculum, and the stress laid upon certain subjects. It is alleged that the educational outlook is ultra-conservative and old-fashioned. Undue importance is attached to classical learning and insufficient attention is bestowed on science. During recent months this agitation has rather gathered strength. Our lack of organisation is attributed to this cause, and a perfect clamour has arisen for the relegation of the classics to the scrap-heap, and for the domination of science in life from the cradle to the grave. This worship of science is, in fact, a little hysterical. The study is certainly of great importance, and we can advantageously introduce it into our commercial and industrial life to a much greater extent than we have hitherto done, but it is not the be-all and end-all of existence. An education in which science dominated would be narrow, chilling, and repulsive. Life would tend to become an algebraic formula. A knowledge of literature and of the classics broadens the mind, and smoothes out some of the angular features of character. It would be an evil day when we erected science as supreme goddess in our schools.

Is there, however, room for reform? Do classics play an undue part in our present educational system? The answer largely depends upon the attainments of the individual pupil, and upon his probable future career. For the boy of only moderate abilities a classical education is perhaps largely wasted, but for the boy of capacity it is, I believe, a very fine stimulus. And apart altogether from the question of the necessary examinations, I believe that for the boy intending to adopt a professional career it is largely essential. It gives him a polish and a wide outlook which he can with difficulty acquire elsewhere. Otherwise the education on the modern side of a school is probably the more valuable, although for the reasons previously given I should be strongly opposed to the further modernisation of the system by the curtailment or elimination of Latin in favour of science, commercial subjects, and modern languages. The aim of education is not purely utilitarian; it is not to turn out a highly finished money-making machine, but to produce a man. There is a tendency at the present day to forget this vital point.

From what may be termed the moral standpoint, classics, literature, and history are the most valuable subjects. Both on the modern and on the classical side far more attention should be bestowed upon an *intelligent* study of history than is now done. Important also from the standpoint of fostering an interest in Imperial matters is the study of geography—more especially of British and Imperial geography. Modern languages

come next in importance in the scale, and finally mathematics and science.

The principal value of the present method of teaching modern languages is literary. This, indeed, is of considerable worth. A knowledge of the great authors of France and Germany is a liberal education in itself, and for this reason modern languages rightly occupy a place in our school curriculum. But conversational facility can only be readily acquired by residence abroad, and consequently there is no valid reason for increasing the attention paid to these subjects to the detriment of others. The elimination or serious curtailment of classics in the school syllabus, and the devotion of the time thus gained to the extra study of French and German would not materially assist conversational facility, and would therefore be robbing education of a rich source of mental training for no adequate purpose.

A knowledge of science, again, is valuable; but does the average school course on the modern side in chemistry and physics justify the extension of the time available by cutting down study in other directions? I do not think so. The average boy acquires at present quite sufficient scientific knowledge for his subsequent conduct in life. If for the purposes of his future career a deeper and more detailed knowledge is necessary, he has every facility in the technical and university courses now available. There is no case for starving the more liberal branches of learning in favour of knowledge which is mainly utilitarian, and which possesses inferior value as a moral agent. These remarks, of course, apply to the modern side of the school syllabus. On the classical side science at present finds no place, and it probably would be beneficial if this subject were in future given the same status on the classical side which Latin occupies on the modern. This would mean *some* curtailment of the time at present bestowed on the classics, and to this extent I think curtailment would be justifiable.

Finally, in connection with university education a similar ultra-modern movement has arisen. It has been suggested that a commercial course should be introduced at Oxford and Cambridge, and that degrees in commerce should be awarded. Now in the first place the primary object of a university education—as of all education—is the development of character—moral, intellectual, and physical. Our universities exist in order to impart that culture which is of more lasting benefit, of deeper and more abiding pleasure to a man than the glamour of *£ s. d.* This proposal to institute a department for tuition in the gentle art of money-making is one of the most deplorable signs of the materialist and utilitarian spirit abroad in some quarters. Henceforth the advantages of a university career are to be

measured in terms of hard coin. There are, however, some things which, while they will not conform to any known standard of practical utility, nevertheless possess a very important and intrinsic value of their own. A delight in books, a keen appreciation of science and of art—these are qualities which cannot always be translated into actual cash, but which contribute far more to the abiding happiness of life than does the power of acquiring wealth. Our ancient universities stand for these moral and intellectual qualities, and long may they continue to do so. They serve as a reminder that there is something higher and nobler than mere wealth; they stand as bulwarks of the deepest and most estimable qualities of human nature, and it is our duty to see that they remain intact.

It is often urged that a university career unfits a man for business life. I doubt whether there is much truth in the contention. A man may be temporarily delayed by his university training, but the habits of mind he has formed, and the spirit of culture he has acquired, are likely to stand him in good stead eventually, and fully to compensate him for any disadvantage he may incur at the outset. The fact that a majority of our ablest Civil servants and of our most prominent and successful lawyers are university men would seem to dispose of the theory that the present curriculum unfits its devotees for practical life. In fact, a university career is indirectly helpful to any man of ordinary ability and character, whilst in addition it gives him those priceless attributes of true culture—attributes which will soften the road of life and provide a welcome refuge from the monotony of daily routine. By all means do everything that is possible to reform and increase the academic and intellectual efficiency of the universities, but do not embark on the perilous and mistaken course of harnessing them to the business system of this country. They are not meant to be seminaries for commercial houses; their ideals are more lofty than those dictated by the maxims of worldly prudence and materialism. The universities are symbolical of the grandeur and dignity of national history; at present they embody all that is noblest and most enduring in national tradition. Let them so remain.

Thus whilst there is room for readjustment in some respects—for giving more attention to some subjects and less to others; whilst above all there is great necessity for banishing from the educational system the present craze for quantity rather than for quality, the general principles of instruction are sound, and are worthy of support. Reform in detail and in method rather than reform in principle is what is required.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

THE COMMERCIAL WAR

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE GOVERNMENT

(Continued.)

AMONG the most important bodies which have considered *post-bellum* commercial conditions is the Conference of the British Imperial Council of Commerce, held at Skinners' Hall, under the Chairmanship of Lord Desborough. This meeting endorsed the resolution passed at the special meeting of the Association of Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom, and urged that arrangements should be made at the earliest possible moment to provide for:—

(1) Preferential reciprocal relations between all parts of the British Empire. (2) Reciprocal trading between all parts of the British Empire and the Allied countries. (3) The favourable treatment of neutral countries, and the restriction by tariffs and otherwise of trade relations with all enemy countries so that on return to pre-war conditions dumping will be impossible.

It is possible that there are some industries to which a tariff is not safely applicable, and which are nevertheless in need of assistance. The converse operation is necessary in these cases. That is to say they should receive assistance in the form of bounties. We have only to study the classic instances of beet sugar and the mercantile marine to understand how powerful may be the effect of a bounty in promoting nascent, or stimulating decadent, industries. Let us assume that we desire to encourage the manufacture of high-class dyes. At present the secrets of the preparation of these dyes are locked up in the safe repository of German minds. We should at once offer rewards to inventors and definite bounties per unit produced of these particular dyes. The research chemists should at once be given specified tasks. Their work is essential but preliminary. When they have achieved something the second stage must be entered on—the encouragement of the manufacturer. We have to guard against two risks: being entirely without the necessary high-class dyes and being for ever dependent on Germany for them. The first contingency would starve our finer textiles, the second would leave us still at the mercy of the enemies of civilisation.

There is no time to be lost. And here it is necessary to enter a *caveat* against the dictum of a great authority. Lord Moulton in an address delivered on December 8, 1914, at Manchester, said much that was wise and prudent with reference to the dye industry. Unfortunately Lord Moulton, like most of his school of thought, ignores the root motive of Prussian commercial policy. He does not recognise that with our enemy commerce is the handmaid of dominion. He scoffs at the idea that Germany is prepared for a world-wide dumping of her manufactures, and asserts that if the (hypothetical) British Dye Company finds itself seriously attacked by Germany it can abandon the United Kingdom to German dyes and concentrate its efforts on the East. This, however, in Lord Moulton's opinion, is not likely to happen. He says: "My opinion is that they will find that it is better to leave you to supply yourselves than to set free such a formidable output as a great company would make to compete with them in other markets of the world." The reason for his opinion is that he considers the Germans are out to make profits, and "dropping prices all over is not a good way of making profits."

Of course it is not, but Germany is out for something more than profits. She is out to crush the British Empire, and the necessary condition is that only such of our industries be allowed to persist as Germany can effectively control, either openly by command of the raw material, or secretly by insidious permeation in this country. She is prepared to sacrifice much to this end, and has already enormous stocks ready to be sold at "bargain prices" so as to stifle any effort we may make. It is true that Mr. Asquith makes light of this danger, and when replying to a question put to him in the House of Commons, said that the "assertion rests on an unproved assumption." That is an exhibition of the skill of the Parliamentary tactician—skill in evasion—but comes rather badly from the head of a government whose indifference to all warning has already cost us so much in blood and treasure. Has Mr. Asquith seen the widely distributed circular of Mr. Hartrodt of Buenos Aires, Hamburg, Bremen, and New York? This points out that "there is in Germany an enormous quantity of merchandise ready to load," and offers to help in making arrangements to ensure the earliest possible shipment from Germany of goods ordered by the recipients of the circular.

It would be far better if Mr. Asquith were to recognise dangers instead of belittling those who warn him. Unless something is done we shall be ruined in the economic war as we have been within an ace of being ruined in the military. The Prime Minister has now to take steps to carry into effect the

resolutions of the Paris Conference. These may be summarised as :—

1. During the war no German goods of any kind, and suppression of Hun firms in allied countries.
2. During the time of recuperation after the war measures to keep all our own industries, raw material, merchant shipping, and the like for our own benefit, and prohibition of, or penal duties on, "dumped" goods and German ships.
3. Permanently after the war our right to give bounties to special and basic industries, to encourage shipping, and to encourage trained men in industry who shall prevent any German attempt again to dominate the world.

The final conclusion of the Conference was that the individual Governments must act without delay.

It would be well if Mr. Asquith would take a leaf out of the book of our Dominions and Allies. For instance, M. Clementel, the French Minister of Commerce, in giving out the text of the resolutions adopted by the Allies' Economic Conference, said that English views had dominated the Conference, and spoke highly of the energy and eloquence with which Mr. Hughes, the Australian Premier, had contributed to the discussions. A short time ago the French Government received information regarding a German official document concerning the dye industry showing that the German aniline trust, representing a capital of over £40,000,000, was preparing a scheme for the domination of the world's markets. By "cornering" before the war the aniline dye industry the Germans had succeeded in paralysing the manufacture of explosives in France, thus constituting an immense danger for French national defence.

Germany also dominated the French textile trade before the war, but the Allies were determined to destroy that supremacy. The Germanic Powers were making a superhuman effort to maintain their supremacy by "dumping." They were at present manufacturing and assembling immense stocks of all classes of goods, especially iron and steel rails, girders, electrical and surgical instruments, machinery of all sorts, chemical products and the like. As soon as peace was signed they would "dump" these on the world's markets at prices 50 per cent. less than their competitors, their guiding principle being to sell dear at home but cheaper than their rivals abroad.

The Deutsche Bank and all other German financial organisations were in constant correspondence with neutrals, and enemy traders disguised as neutrals, preparing for the trade war after the war. They were making formidable efforts to secure all possible stocks of raw materials, and had already obtained considerable quantities. But the *bloc* formed by the Allies was so powerful

that it would be criminal if the Entente Powers allowed themselves to become the slaves of their rivals. With regard to raw material, said M. Clementel, the Allies would be well inspired if they followed the example of Australia, which had under consideration a contract with England, France and Belgium, guaranteeing to them exclusively all zinc produced by the Commonwealth. In conclusion, M. Clementel warned the Allies against the employment of Germans in national and Allied industries. France has begun to *act* on the recommendations of the Paris Conference. Our Government has appointed a Committee, in composition largely reactionary, to consider whether anything can be done!

It is matter for congratulation that we have taken the first step towards ensuring a British destination for our valuable colonial produce. We have hitherto been in the hands of Continental makers of margarine, most obligingly supplying them with the raw material. Now Mr. Bonar Law's committee have recommended an impost of £2 or more per ton on all palm kernels from British West Africa exported to places outside the British Dominions. From our West African Dominions there is a large and growing export of vegetable oils and the kernels from which the oils are produced. The total value in 1913 was over seven and a quarter millions sterling. Most of this formerly went to foreign countries, our import in 1913 being only 36,000 tons. Under war conditions this has increased to 240,000 tons last year, while the British mills necessary to handle the increase have been erected. Here we have the germ of a valuable industry, and it is satisfactory to note that the Cabinet have accepted Mr. Bonar Law's recommendation.

It is possible that opinions will vary as to the various proposals to which I have referred, but at any rate they do come from authoritative sources and do afford a basis on which to work, serving to focus attention on something of a practical nature. Experience of the method, or lack of method, of the British Government does not encourage the hope that these matters will be promptly dealt with, and therefore all who realise the danger to which we shall be exposed immediately peace is declared must use every effort to enlighten public opinion and to stimulate our nerveless rulers.

An educational campaign is immediately necessary, and during the next generation Government must utterly abandon its attitude of decrying the Imperial spirit, sneering at its votaries, and thwarting its purposes. The universities, the public and secondary schools, the education departments, and the county educational authorities must all frame their curricula so as to give full recognition to the fact that the well-being of the Empire should

be the first care of all. No longer must a reasonable patriotism be regarded with suspicion; and we must inculcate in the new generation, which has to face the altered world resulting from the present war, a spirit of real pride in our Empire, a definite acquaintance with its founders, its extent and its peoples, its productions and its value. And, lastly, our general economic teaching must be revised in the light of recent experience, so as to give recognition to the necessity for national salvation as a motive force in the productive and fiscal spheres. Internationalism as a world force is exploded.

Practical pecuniary encouragement must be given to research and invention, and our scheme of education must aim at brightening the intellect and developing the power of initiative. The cold shoulder which the average official invariably turns towards any proposal, any invention, which cannot be confined within the four corners of a regulatory schedule, is only typical of the attitude of the majority of our race. Yet if we are to advance we must have alert officials, and such regulations as will encourage instead of crushing our undoubted inventive powers.

The Imperial Institute has done most excellent work of recent years in the testing of raw materials from various parts of the Empire. This work is essential to the determination of the commercial possibilities of any product. There are numerous plants indigenous to particular dominions which are capable of furnishing textile fabrics, drugs, dye stuffs, cattle and other foods, oils, and resins. But there is always the doubt in the mind of the pioneer as to whether any possible method of extraction will prove sufficiently efficacious and cheap to leave a margin of profit. In estimating percentages, in testing resistances, in pronouncing on processes, lies the scope of the Institute's activities. The weak link in this chain of activity is that the Institute possesses no authority other than that attaching to the undoubtedly high scientific attainments of its staff. It should be possible for the Institute to be able to offer definite financial guarantees for limited periods to all undertakings in relation to new industries which were recommended by its experts and approved by Government. For this purpose it might have a definite grant, or rather a limit up to which such guarantees might be offered. It is understood that the Imperial Institute has now been taken over by the Colonial Office, and possibly when that closer, though still elastic, union of the Empire which we all seek has been achieved, the Overseas Dominions will provide some part of the money necessary for this purpose.

Among the greatest of present anomalies in relation to our commerce is the existence of that very ill-defined body the Board of Trade, the functions of which are as vague as its constitution

is grotesque. It is high time that we substituted for this so-called Board a real Ministry of Commerce, at the head of which should be someone whose qualifications would command respect, and who would be capable of appreciating the real needs of the commercial world. A Ministry of Commerce would save us from many of the blunders of the past, and would combine authoritative, statistical, and advisory functions. All appointments of British Consuls or commercial Attachés should be subject to its approval. Such a Ministry of Commerce would, as I have already suggested, co-operate with the authorities of the Dominions in arranging for a proper scheme of Imperial publicity which should educate the people of the Empire up to a knowledge of our Imperial resources in raw materials and manufactured goods. Ignorance and apathy are the twin evils most to be feared in the time to come, and these evils require to be resolutely combated.

The necessary determination must be found among ourselves, the plain humble everyday people. From us it must be communicated to our Government, which of itself will rather hinder than help. A ministry which paltered over the danger of war is now equally irresolute and shifty over the economic peril. We are told by Lord Haldane that their attitude over the former question was due to our lack of education and to our unwillingness to face the facts. Let us see to it that no such excuse is possible in the present case.

A. E. DUCHESNE.

A USEFUL BOOK

A BOOK, having for its title 'Canada: The Country of the Twentieth Century,' has been prepared by Mr. Watson Griffin, of Ottawa, for the Department of Trade and Commerce, and is published for distribution by the authority of Sir George Foster. It is a description of Canada, a review of her agricultural, forest and mineral resources, her industrial and commercial development, and her geographical relation to the markets of the world. The compilation has been made with great care, while the literary style is all that could be desired. The work is bound to prove valuable to those for whom it is primarily intended—persons who have not been fortunate enough to visit Canada, but who desire to acquire a knowledge of the Dominion. There was a common saying a decade ago that the twentieth century belongs to Canada. The expression is not heard so frequently now, but the faith which it embodied still exists. Mr. Griffin has done a great deal towards demonstrating upon what a solid foundation it rests.

CONDITIONS OF BUSH LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

A SQUATTER'S ADVICE TO EMIGRANTS

[Continued.]

I STRONGLY advise anyone who may be thinking of starting a young man in Australia to have the purchase deeds made out in his own name, employing the young man as manager and giving him a percentage of the net profits, say up to 50 per cent., by way of salary, with a bonus after an exceedingly good year. The salary might be raised from time to time, but it would be unwise to transfer the property until the death of the benefactor or until he is satisfied that the young man fully understands his job and can be trusted to carry on by himself. But on no account should anything be done in the way of buying land until the young man has been through the "mill" and gained the necessary experience.

It is a great mistake to encourage new-comers to purchase land in Australia before they are conversant with Australian conditions, particularly the values of land. It takes some years to gain this knowledge and to appreciate the many drawbacks that surround a settler's life in the Bush. Let me state a few of these drawbacks.

First of all there is the isolation, the more or less considerable distance between one's home and that of the next settler, the distance from the nearest town, which increases the cost of living and also that of getting live stock, or crops to market. Then schools are generally four or five miles away, and the children have to travel, perhaps on horseback, along lonely bush tracks, sometimes only faintly defined, in a country subject to tropical storms of great severity, and it is easy to miss the track. Conditions, however, are improving, and when a school happens to be anywhere near it is almost certain to be a good one. Labour Governments certainly spoon-feed the individual if they do not consider it their duty to protect property. Clergymen, doctors and dentists generally reside in the nearest Bush towns, which may be anything up to 100 miles distant from the farm.

Roads are rare, and in wet weather often become very boggy in some places and quite impassable. To make a bush road the standing trees and logs have to be removed. The surface is then levelled and rough gutters made on either side, the earth being thrown up on the track. If the roots of the felled trees have not been removed suckers rapidly spring up and the road is soon obliterated, or a bullock team heavily laden with timber, travelling after a little rain, will cut ruts axle deep rendering it useless for light traffic until the ruts are filled in, and these are very often cut out again a few days afterwards. Occasionally wooden culverts or bridges are erected, and these are liable to be destroyed by bush fires. The creeks and gullies in wet seasons rise with marvellous rapidity, and in a few hours become uncrossable and remain so for weeks together, the isolation then is absolute.

Then there are the droughts to which I have already called attention. First the grass disappears, then the water. At these times, if the property is any distance from a town or depôt, it is well-nigh impossible to procure fodder, which is not only very expensive but has to be brought up by bullock team. Moreover when water and grass are scarce, it is no easy matter to get teams to draw the fodder. The stock constantly get hogged in the water holes, which have become very low and very muddy, and being too weak to get out by themselves have to be pulled out by draught horses. As a rule all that can be done is to hope for rain, and if it does not come the herds and the flocks gradually die, and a fresh start has to be made. Droughts frequently occur in the sheep districts when every blade and root of grass disappears, the sheep subsisting for a long time on the seeds of the grass which they lick up from the soil and upon which they often do exceedingly well. When the rain comes the growth of the grass is at once most luxuriant, and it is a remarkable fact that certain excellent grasses which, previous to the drought, had been actually eaten out and to all intents and purposes practically exterminated, reappear in great profusion, notwithstanding the fact that much of the surface soil had been blown away during the dry time that had been experienced.

Bush fires are other enemies, small holdings often being completely burnt out; not a blade of grass is left and much valuable fencing is frequently lost.

Then there are the pests, which may be divided into two classes, animal and vegetable. To the former class belong rabbits, hares, foxes and wild dogs, and in the latter are included the thistle, blackberry, sweetbriar, cactus, indigo or pea, and the Bathurst and Noogoora burrs.

Rabbits are responsible for an enormous amount of damage. Notwithstanding all efforts for their extermination they continue

to multiply exceedingly and to extend their patronage to areas hitherto free from their ravages. In spite of being inoculated with all sorts of diseases they appear to be just as healthy, just as prolific and just as hungry as ever they were. Provided, however, their destruction is taken in hand as soon as they make their appearance and the paddocks are properly netted, they can be kept under with little trouble, but if left alone they soon get the upper hand and it becomes most difficult and costly to get rid of them. The carrying properties of a sheep station on which the destruction of rabbits has been neglected is sometimes reduced by three-fourths, and the value of the property suffers in like proportion. It is not difficult to keep the hares down, though in some places they are fairly numerous. In districts where fruit-growing is undertaken the extermination of hares is necessary because they eat the bark of the fruit trees and, in the end, kill them. As a rule, however, hares do little harm.

Foxes have not done a great deal of damage in New South Wales, the value of their fur probably accounting for their disappearance. Wild dogs, commonly called "dingoes," worry and kill the sheep and calves. It is extraordinary what one dingo can do in a short time. I remember thirty-five sheep being put one night into an eighty acre paddock supposed to be dog proof. A dingo got in, and by the morning sixteen were found dead, the rest being more or less injured.

I pass on to the vegetable pests. The thistle* has become one of the greatest pests in the State. It is difficult enough to keep it under on a small property, but on a larger property the task is well-nigh impossible; particularly is this the case where rivers run through the estate or when Government reserves are situated within its boundaries. The banks of the rivers and the reserves being unleased Crown lands, often become conservatories for all the pests of the vegetable kingdom, which flourish luxuriantly under the genial warmth, moisture and rich soil. The blackberry and sweetbriar† unless carefully watched are apt in the colder parts of the State to become a nuisance. They prefer to establish themselves on the best soil, and especially where moisture is to be found, but are easily kept under. A large extent of excellent country, more particularly in Southern Queensland, is over-run with the cactus, or prickly-pear and rendered absolutely useless, in spite of the strongest Government regulations which require its destruction on all land privately owned.

The so-called "indigo" or "pea" is prevalent on the western slopes of the New England district of New South Wales, and

* Introduced from Scotland.

† Brought from England by the early settlers.

during the dry seasons when the herbage is scanty the sheep eat it and eventually live on it. When the habit of eating indigo is acquired it acts as an opiate, the sheep become more or less stupefied and drowsy and finally die; they also teach other sheep the habit. The presence therefore of indigo on a property takes a considerable amount off its value. The plant has long roots which penetrate deeply into the soil and consequently are able to get moisture and thrive when, in the dry times, there is but little grass. Over-stocking is also one of the principal causes of the acquisition of this pernicious habit by the sheep. Owing to the deep-rooted character of the plant it is most difficult and costly to eradicate, and if any portion of the root is left behind it becomes in time a plant. Indigo fortunately prefers the cooler portions of New South Wales, and is not found either on the great western plains or on the Riverina.

The seeds of the Bathurst burr were brought originally from South America in the tails and manes of imported horses. The horses were taken to Bathurst in New South Wales, and it was in that district where the plant was first noticed, hence the name Bathurst burr. The plant is very hardy and a great seed-bearer, each seed being a burr. It has now spread all over the country, the burrs getting into the manes and tails of the horses, the wool of the sheep and wherever they can attach themselves. The burrs are covered with short, sharp, hard spines which adhere to almost everything, and are carried long distances by the stock. Wherever the spines fall they invariably germinate. The pest is thus spread to those remote corners of the estate rarely visited, and the burrs are continually being picked up and dropped by straying cattle, sheep and horses. In this way it spreads everywhere, the source for a long time remaining undiscovered. The Noogoora burr, another pest, frequents localities where warmth and moisture are combined. It is not so prolific or so wide-spread as the Bathurst burr and is more easily mastered.

Then certain extensive areas are rendered more or less useless owing to the prevalence of the *Zamia*, a plant most difficult and costly to get rid of, and one for which cattle acquire a taste. Even if there be plenty of excellent pasture in the locality the cattle will seek out the *Zamia* and eat it, paralysis of the spine soon follows, and they can no longer be driven to market. In fact they have to be killed on the spot, as they can neither travel for food nor water. The cost of eradicating this weed would far exceed the freehold value of the land, which has thus to remain practically waste Crown land, becoming more useless every year, and developing into a breeding ground for dingoes, rabbits and other pests.

An emigrant settler should certainly not take up land with a

view to a pastoral life, especially on a cattle property, even after he has gained "colonial experience" unless possessing a capital of at least £3,000. Let me explain why. In New South Wales a settler may take up 1,280 acres of Crown land on which he is required to erect a home and make certain improvements. By the time he has complied with these conditions he has probably expended the whole of his capital. Accordingly to stock his land he has to go to the bank for an advance either on the value of his property, or on his improvements. For this assistance he has to pay a high rate of interest and so begins life with a heavy burden of debt. As long as the good seasons last and he can get the rain when he wants it sufficient for the grass to grow and his stock to drink, and provided bush fires do not burn him out or droughts occur, he may, with luck, pay his way, but the bad times come, and come at very short intervals. Again he is probably overstocked in order to try and get some appreciable return. Then either his land cannot carry the stock and he loses a considerable number of cattle, or he has to dispose of as many head as he can, if he can dispose of any at all, at a considerable loss. His stock having been bought with borrowed money represent his capital, so in losing stock he loses capital.

Pastoral properties, certainly cattle properties, with the existing low prices, can only be profitably worked on a large scale, over a considerable extent of country, and no owner or manager of any large station would be justified in over-stocking. Indeed it would be a very great mistake to do so. A small settler with a comparatively small herd* might be able to obtain adjustment for the cattle his land could not carry, though he would probably have to pay highly for the privilege, or he might without much difficulty, though at a considerable loss, take his herd to the sale yards and dispose of the cattle by auction. But a pastoralist owning a large extent of country could not obtain adjustment for a herd of from 1,000 to 10,000 head, nor could he dispose of so large a herd just when he wished to do so in the local yards. He must therefore be very careful not to over-stock.

Again, over a large extent of country some portions are generally better watered than others; a considerable area would be permanently watered, and even in ordinary seasons good feed could be found, droughts are therefore not felt in the same way as on small properties. When the Bush fires come, which they do certainly once a year, a large property is never completely burnt out all at once, the burning off is done gradually, but a small property is often burnt out in a few hours. Nor is it pleasant for the small settler to realise that if his

* He could not, on 1,280 acres, carry a greater number than 120 head of adult cattle.

property be situated thirty or more miles away from a town a butcher will not travel that distance to inspect a few head of fat cattle, while the expense of droving a small mob to the yards on the chance of a sale and with the possibility of having to bring them back, the journey having taken two or three months' condition off them, makes the outlook rather hopeless.

A small settler is often obliged to sell his cattle to a kind of hawker who travels about the country from one place to another picking up two or three head here and there at his own price, until he has got together a small mob, which he then drives to the town and disposes of to the local butchers. On the other hand, the pastoralist in a large way can offer, not alone to the local butchers, but to the great wholesale carcase butchers from Sydney and America, mobs of 100 to 500 head of fat cattle in a single paddock. As these men require the cattle to enable them to carry out their contracts they are always ready to send an agent to inspect them. Moreover the pastoralist in a large way knows the value of his stock in the general market, and if the agent of one firm will not give a fair price he can try the agent of another firm, in the end he is pretty sure to get his own price. Again, the small settler, being a very hard-worked man, has little or no time to study the outside market for cattle; even if he had the time he would not be acquainted with the outside reasons for the rise and fall of value, a matter which the large settlers make a practice of studying.

Then, of course, there are the general losses to be considered. By this I mean losses that always arise on a cattle property, and these I place at 3 to 4 per cent. annually. I need hardly say that they affect the small settler far more in proportion than the squatter with a large property.

If the value of cattle were to rise appreciably and there was a reasonable prospect of that rise being sustained, small settlers would not be tempted to stock so heavily, and therefore stand less risk of loss from drought or fire. The land too would become more settled, and men would take up properties in proximity to one another, they would combine and send their stock to market, thus reducing the heavy droving expenses, or put their fat cattle into one mob making it worth the while of the big dealers or the local butchers to inspect them. But until prices rise and the Government permit the free transfer of Crown land, at the same time abolishing the present onerous conditions of residence, the prospects of the settler on a small cattle property are not very bright.

In my opinion the Government should do all they can to encourage the small settler to take up small areas of agricultural land, insisting only on the conditions that the land should be

cultivated and the annual instalments of the value punctually paid. The capital of the small agriculturist would then be in the land and there would be no necessity for him to borrow money; when a bad season came he would merely lose his income, instead of as is now too often the case having to part with his capital or a considerable portion of it. He would be able to reside in a settlement or village, where his family would have neighbours and where religious instruction, education for the children and medical and dental treatment could be arranged. These advantages are practically impossible of attainment where small pastoral properties are situated.

CHARLES A. G. LILLINGSTON.

(To be continued.)

POSSIBILITIES OF SOUTH AFRICA

THE continued increase in the number and description of articles hitherto imported in large quantities, but now being manufactured locally, indicates the great possibilities of South Africa, with its extensive supply of raw material. The liberality of the railway facilities provided to assist local industries is becoming more generally recognised and acted upon, with undoubted advantage to South Africa. The effect of the establishment of industries has been to create activity in other directions, with the result that new works have sprung up in districts where the raw material necessary for the manufacture of the commodity concerned is obtainable. Adequate railway facilities and cheap transport are of vital importance, and the policy of the Railway Board has been one of encouragement in this direction. The increase in the variety and extent of manufactures is also bringing into prominence the attitude the Railway Administration should take in regard to the source from which it should procure supplies for its own requirements. In the case of the South African supplier, especially when situated inland, the prices at which he can supply to the Railway Administration at places not far distant from his factory are often favourable when compared with the prices of the oversea supplier. The existence of factories within the Union is certain to add to the traffic of the railways as the result of the labour employed in the production of the articles and in the carriage of the raw materials, a consideration of some account to the Administration. Some years ago the cement produced in South Africa was inferior in quality, lesser in quantity and much dearer in price. The railways, among others, proving attractive prospective customers, the manufacturers took steps to improve the cement with the result that the South African article is now equal to the oversea commodity, the price is substantially lower than formerly and consequently the cement produced locally far exceeds the quantity imported, and the percentage in favour of the South African article is constantly increasing.

THE DUNLOP RUBBER COMPANY

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE PNEUMATIC TYRE

THE story of Dunlops may justly be described as one of those romances in our commercial life which have played a part, by no means unimportant, in building up and maintaining the fabric of the great British Empire. It affords also a striking instance of what can be effected by the application of science to enterprise, and what may be accomplished by a combination of qualities which have their genesis in initiative and perseverance. Fostered and expanded by the brains and untiring energy of the Du Cros family, the pneumatic tyre industry, starting in 1888 by the invention of Mr. Dunlop, a veterinary surgeon at Belfast, has developed and increased until its renown has become world-wide and its annual value not far short of £130,000,000. Moreover, instead of displacing other industries it has been the means not only of founding several new undertakings but of reviving others which but for its existence must have disappeared long ago from the business arena.

One would have imagined that an invention of such vast possibilities would have been received with open arms. Instead of that being the case, the pneumatic tyre met with strenuous opposition at the very beginning of its career. But it would not be quite fair to saddle the commercial community with this opposition, which had its origin not so much in business circles as in the cycling clubs, where solid tyres and high machines had gained a great vogue. I can recall, and I daresay others can do the same, Mr. (now Sir) Arthur du Cros' first efforts to convince the public of the merits attaching to the pneumatic tyre. He had entered for the Surrey Cup, a half-yearly contest which took place under the auspices of the Surrey Bicycle Club at Kennington Oval, but the committee declined to allow him to start, on the ground that he was riding a "safety." It did not take him long, however, to live down prejudice of this kind, and in the following year he turned the tables on his former opponents by defeating all comers at Birmingham and in the Midlands.

Soon the fame of the pneumatic tyre began to permeate the country, and cycling, which up to that date had been the pastime of the few rapidly became the pastime of the many. Where before only a few riders were to be seen, hundreds and soon thousands made their appearance. London Society seized on the innovation, and it was a common sight to see parties of smart ladies cycling down with their attendant knights to Battersea Park before breakfast. As second-hand bicycles came on the market, the working classes secured them, and in the course of a few years cycling became the common means whereby young men and young women living in the suburbs reached their places of business. The substitution of wood paving for macadam materially assisted the progress of the pneumatic tyre, and owners of cabs and carriages were not slow to adopt the invention, which received a still further impetus when motors took the place of horses.

An awkward check, however, was encountered soon after the first company was incorporated when it was discovered that the principle of the pneumatic tyre, consisting of a rubber tube of compressed air protected by a cover of canvas and rubber, had been embodied in an earlier patent. This, of course, meant that the Dunlop patent was, to all intents and purposes, useless as a financial asset. Fortunately a way out of the difficulty was found by the utilisation of the Welch and Bartlett patents, which provided simple and efficient means of attachment and detachment of the tyre mechanically, in place of the crude method of fixing by means of canvas and rubber cement. These patents were acquired by the Dunlop Company, and, with the advent of the detachable tyre, their business went ahead by leaps and bounds. In 1896 the old company, which had started with a capital of £15,000, sold the business for £3,000,000 to a new company, with Mr. Harvey du Cros as chairman, and Mr. (now Sir) Arthur du Cros managing director. Under the new administration each year added fresh laurels to the enterprise of this vast British concern, and some idea of its present dimensions may be gathered from the fact that whereas the original company began with six work-people, the undertaking to-day employs some 30,000 persons in the manufacture of the tyre, the weaving of cotton cloth, the cultivation of rubber, and the production of wheels, valves, rims and other accessories.

The financial policy of the new company was strictly conservative. Everything was well thought out beforehand and no expenditure sanctioned unless certain to produce good results. Meanwhile large additions were made annually to the Reserve Fund. Thus it happened when the main patents expired the company was able not only to meet successfully its

opponents in the open market, but to retain the position of pre-eminence it had so long held, and which it still holds to-day in spite of the keenest competition from Europe and the United States of America.

It is doubtful however if that position could have been maintained had not the company taken care to make themselves into a self-contained concern. I do not say nor imply that material from outside is never purchased. Of course it is, but here again the strong position of the company enables it to command the first call on all that is best of the world's produce. But that is another story. What I want to emphasise here is the fact that Dunlops' is a self-contained industry, possessing its own cotton and rubber estates, all within the Empire, its own cotton and rubber mills, its own laboratories, its own factories and workshops. By this means the firm is able to manufacture its casings and to treat its rubber in the manner which experience has proved to be the best both as regards suitability and durability, obvious essentials for the success of any tyre. No wonder more Dunlop tyres are used in the United Kingdom, and, I think, one may say in the Dominions than those of any other maker, and this in spite of the fact that at times the demand exceeds the supply.

Not that the Dunlop Company is incapable of meeting fully in normal times all the demands made, but last year the Government requirements for military and other purposes exceeded all expectations, with the result that private orders had for a while to remain in abeyance. This difficulty has, I understand, now been overcome and a similar delay is not likely again to occur. Still the shortage of English tyres last year provided opportunities to American competitors to come in and supply the private users both in this country and the Dominions, and no doubt in this way a good deal of money passed, and is still passing, into the pockets of foreign firms, which ought, and must, in the future remain within the Empire. It is up to Britishers to see this condition of things is ended as soon as possible, and now that Dunlops are in a position to meet all reasonable demands, there is certainly no excuse for its continuance.

In choosing a tyre the most important thing is regularity of result. You do not want a tyre which lasts say 5,000 miles on one occasion and 2,000 on another. You want the highest average mileage possible year in and year out, and to get this you must have soundness of design and the very best quality of material. To make a certainty of obtaining these properties in a tyre there must be complete control over the ingredients and the most careful inspection from start to finish. Unless every-

thing and everybody concerned in the manufacture of the tyre comes under the same control these ends cannot be assured. The aim of Dunlops' is to standardise both the rubber and the fabric, and when that is assured, uniformity in results is bound to follow. Experience in any business goes a very long way, and the experience of Dunlops' is unique. As pioneers of the pneumatic tyre industry they did all the spade work, thereby acquiring exceptional knowledge, while the enormous trade done by the firm in every country enables them to obtain information of the most useful character regarding the varying conditions of climate and roads.

Just as no rifle or gun is allowed to go out from a government or controlled factory or workshop without very careful examination so it is with Dunlop tyres. No tyre passes into the market without being subjected to the most severe test, and it is very seldom that a flaw in any casing escapes the vigilant eyes of the company's inspectors. One has only to pay a visit to the works to receive confirmation of all that has been said on this and other points.

Not only have the Company's works been reorganised, but entirely new shops are being set up at Bromford on the outskirts of Birmingham. Here a site of some seventy-two acres has been acquired on which are to be erected forty-eight acres of buildings, the remaining space being taken up with railway sidings, roads, and canal facilities. A variety of reasons were responsible for the selection of this particular site, prominent amongst them being that it adjoined the Midland Railway Company's main line between Leicester, Birmingham and Derby, enabling close touch to be kept with the Warwickshire Coalfields.

An additional advantage is the proximity of the canal system which allows the Company to have a wharf within easy distance of the Works. An ample water supply, both natural and artificial, is available, whilst the ground itself is particularly suitable for laying the foundations of extensive buildings. It is also within easy reach of the existing plant, and the Corporation of Birmingham intend, I am told, putting down a tram service close enough to the new site for workpeople to obtain convenient access. The buildings are being arranged with a view of obtaining a sequence of operations that will ensure the minimum handling of the various constituents utilised in the manufacture of the tyre. With one exception the shops are single storey, constructed in fire-proof compartments and isolated from one another with brick walls. The roofing material is reinforced concrete hollow pre-cast slabs—a singularly suitable material seeing that it is an excellent non-conductor, tending to modify both extreme heat and cold. Power will be supplied from six large water-tube

boilers, each having a capacity of 25,000 lbs. of steam per hour. These boilers will eventually be duplicated, making twelve in all, and the coal-conveying plant is arranged for a capacity of twelve boilers. In addition to electricity, steam is also used for heating the factories and vulcanising the products.

The company is providing dwelling-house accommodation for its workpeople within easy access of the factory site, and for this purpose some eighty acres of suitable building land have been acquired on lease from the Birmingham Corporation. Eventually a garden village will be erected on the most up-to-date lines: each cottage is to have a garden and a large open space will be set apart in the centre of the village, while land has been reserved for elementary schools, recreation and reading-rooms and other social institutions.

The introduction of the pneumatic tyre has been the means of affording employment for millions of people not alone in the motor industry but in the allied trades and occupations. Without the pneumatic tyre cycling would not have advanced beyond the initial stage, traffic would never have reached its present proportions. Not only have journeys by road, which in days gone by were slow and often wearisome, become quick and pleasurable, but commerce has been trebled by an invention which has also proved of incalculable service in the present war. In fact it is not too much to say that hardly a person exists, young or old, whose daily life is not rendered happier and whose occupation is not in some way or other assisted by the invention of the pneumatic tyre.

“A.”

THE ROMANCE OF LOGWOOD

ONE of the side effects of the present war has been the spectacular rise in the price of logwood. In the West Indies before August 3rd, 1914, logwood was fetching from £2 to £2 10s. per ton in a rather reluctant market. This price has risen during the last twelve months to £6, £7, £8, and even to £10, while some declare it will go higher yet. The world's markets are, in fact, hungry for dyes. The German supply has been cut off; dyes are hard to get; hence the high price of logwood and fustic, both dyewoods.

High as is the present price, however, logwood has known still better days. Writing in 1670, Sir Thomas Modyford, then Governor of Jamaica, speaks of the wood as then fetching from £25 to £30 per ton, and paying £5 per ton to the Customs; while Dampier, buccaneer, logwood cutter, navigator and general adventurer, writing in 1676, refers to a period in the golden age when the Spaniards alone cut logwood and sold it at times for no less than £90, £100, and £112 per ton.

Logwood is a child of the New World and a native of Central America and the West Indies. Particularly does it flourish in Campeachy and Honduras, as its scientific name, *Hæmatoxylon campechianum*, suggests. It was once called Campeachy wood pure and simple, but the rough-and-ready Anglo-Saxon preferred to give it its working name from the fact that it was imported in logs. Campeachy is still said to produce the best kind of the wood, but its output is now comparatively small.

Logwood plants were brought from this place to Jamaica in 1715 by Dr. Barham, and it now grows from end to end of that island. Long, in his 'History of Jamaica,' tells us that the plants were brought across because it was found so hard to work at the chipping in Honduras where the men laboured "standing up to their knees" in water, and "harassed by innumerable mosquito gnats."

Dampier, who lived for a space with the logwood cutters, gives a yet more poignant picture of the semi-amphibious habits into which they were forced. Their huts were slight, though

well thatched with palm leaves to keep out the rain. The bed was a bit of barbecue raised about three feet from the floor level to lift it well above intrusive floods during the rains of the months from May to August. Above the bed rose four stakes to support a net which was a protection from mosquitoes, a "canopy" Dampier terms it. During the wet season the men not infrequently stepped out of bed to find themselves in water two feet deep!

Once introduced into a soil that suits it, and a climate that favours its growth, the logwood gives very little trouble about growing and occupying the land. It likes warmth and it likes moisture. Its flowers appear in masses, tiny individually and elegant, arranged in a kind of tassel and of a beautiful light yellow colour. It is a sight not easily forgotten to see a savannah in Jamaica in the spring of the year, crowded with logwood trees in heavy bloom. Both Michael Scott, in 'Tom Cringle's Log,' and Dampier compare the logwood to the English hawthorn, though of course the logwood is much larger. It is one of the great order of Leguminosae, and is the only species of its genus.

The yellow flowers are great storehouses for honey, and are haunted all day by bees. They are followed by multitudes of winged seeds. As these dry they are borne far and wide on the wings of the wind, thus establishing new groves here there and everywhere. They need no cultivation proper, and their only fault, from an industrial standpoint, is that they have a strong tendency to crowd too closely together, and to twist their trunks into grotesque knots and twirls that make chipping the ripe wood later on an increased difficulty. They need a little pruning to prevent the trunk becoming a tangle of offshoots, but, that done, they give no further trouble. A tree is ripe for cutting in from ten to fifteen years, although some think it is as well to leave it to mature for a longer period.

The outer layers of the wood are white, soft and worthless for any purpose other than the fire. These layers are chipped off by men using the ordinary Kentucky axe or a hatchet. No machine has been invented for this purpose, or, rather, none is in general use, and the logwood chipper to-day employs what is practically the same method and the same tools as the men in the seventeenth century with whom Dampier went forth, taking with him "hatchets, axes, macheats, wedges, etc."

Quite a romance of war and adventure centres round the logwood and those bygone sturdy workers who hewed it down amid the Honduran swamps and forests. The logwood began to appear in European markets shortly after the discovery of America; but the English, when they first began to cruise in the Bay of Campeachy (notably after the capture of Jamaica in

1655) and to "sing the Spanish beards," did not as yet know the value of the logwood. Dampier tells us that they seized several ships loaded with the wood, and burnt ship and cargo, being only careful to save the iron nails and bolts. At length, however, one, Captain James, learnt what a treasure they were thus despising. He had captured a large ship, and instead of destroying her, resolved to take her across to England and fit her out as a privateer. She was loaded with logwood, and this James took along with him, not wanting the trouble of unloading on this side of the Atlantic. All the way over he burnt the wood in his galley fire. To his great delight and surprise, however, he found that the remaining portion of his cargo sold "at a great rate in England." So he opened the door of British logwood cutting in Campeachy; although, according to another story, Englishmen were at work there as far back as the reign of Henry VIII.

Logwood was hailed in Europe with delight as a new source of supply for dyes. In dyeing, notes Sloane, it was chiefly valuable "as giving a good ground foundation for other colours." The logwood dye had, however, at first one fault; the dyers could not make the colour sure. It ran, and the result was that the many dyes made from logwood became marked down pernicious and inferior things. Sloane quotes Middleton in Purchas's 'Voyages' as advising that search should be made among the wool-dyers in Turkey to see if they possessed the secret of making the logwood colours sure, for, said he, "you will hereby enrich yourself very much by bringing down the price of woad and anile." Many years passed before that secret was discovered, and in the interim the fortunes of logwood had seen low depths as well as years of high prices. Time was when writers did not hesitate to claim in so many words that it was this export more than anything else that lent to the West Indies their value as wealth producers. Naturally everyone wished to share in this wealth, and as naturally the market was swamped with logwood. Prices fell. Then the trouble about that fugitive colouring made itself more and more felt. Finally it was considered necessary to invoke the aid of legislation to protect the purity of dye products from the pernicious and fast-fading logwood colours, and for a period it was forbidden to bring logwood into England. But when allowed it came again into great vogue and Sloane, when he visited Jamaica in 1687, found a large business being done in the wood. Sloops brought it from Campeachy to Jamaica, and it was sent on to England in trading vessels.

Ultimately science taught the European manufacturer how to do what Middleton had hoped might be found among the Turks.

Logwood once again rose to great heights of value. The discovery of aniline dyes and the development of the industry in Germany was a new misfortune to dyewoods, until the present War and the British Navy once again turned the tables on the new-comers by shutting them up in German factories. It remains to be seen whether in the future after war emergencies are over, the logwood will be able to hold in any substantial way the position it has just now been thrust into.

The logwood is of course used for other purposes besides dyeing cloth. It is employed in the manufacture of ink. It supplies an excellent stain for microscopic work, and it is also used to a small extent in medicine. Having astringent qualities, it is found useful in cases of mild diarrhoea. Long tells us confidently to take "two ounces of chips, a quart of milk, one quart of water to a quart and a teacup of decoction every three hours," and, he assures us, "it seldom fails to combat common diarrhoea."

The logwood is trimmed and trained to make very beautiful hedges, and the long slender sweeping shoots that it throws out with such energy are occasionally used as hoops for barrels, when nothing better is to be had.

In good soil a logwood will grow ten feet in three years. Full grown, its height sometimes measures forty feet, but from sixteen to twenty feet is the more ordinary limit.

Behind the logwood industry stands a history of dogged daring and courageous determination. It is the story of the logwood cutters on the Central American coast, and it includes, as an incident, that gallant struggle of the Baymen of British Honduras that was the turning-point when that region became actually a British Colony, whereas till that memorable fight it had been merely "a Spanish district where British subjects had certain treaty rights."

British logwood-cutting in Honduras and Mexico may have begun, as has been said, as far back as the time of our Henry VIII., but it is not till the middle of the seventeenth century that we find it anything like firmly established. The grasp of Spain on its American possessions had weakened. Logwood was proving a short cut to wealth, and while it was true that cutters, other than Spaniards, were exposed to sudden and violent dangers, the game was well worth the candle. Moreover, the ranks of the logwood-cutters were recruited from men to whom fighting was second nature, for many of the buccaneers turned from plundering and privateering to logwood-cutting, and the Governors of Jamaica, who had at last been charged to drive them from their buccaneering, were only too glad to see these troublesome gentry finding something else that they took to pleasantly.

It was in vain that the Spanish Government objected where every one else concerned was so well pleased with present arrangements. It urged that the presence of these men, without leave asked or license given, was an infringement of the sovereign rights of the King of Spain. This was very well in its way, but the pursuit was, as we have seen, profitable and agreeable to the ex-buccaneers and convenient as a safety-valve for the British Governors. So, despite protests, the logwood cutters held on to what they ultimately came to regard as their own.

1670 was marked by the "American Treaty" between Britain and Spain. This confirmed to the former all the possessions in the West Indies or America that her subjects "did then hold and possess." It is a nice point, however, whether Britain did thus "hold and possess" those places where her logwood cutters were at work. Spain stoutly contended that Britain did not, and in 1672 she published a decree that all those who entered her domains or traded without license should be "proceeded against as pirates." Eight years later she drove the logwood cutters by force from that corner of the Bay of Campeachy known as Laguna de Terminos, where they had been making themselves happy and very much at home. They were not so easily disposed of, however, and a few months later they were back again cutting wood as busily as ever, just as ready, and much better equipped, to resist any attempt to eject them.

The argument from their side was that their industry did not in any real way interfere with the Spaniards, because it was precisely where the wood most abounded that the Spaniards seldom or never came, being a vast deal more attracted by the chances of gaining wealth from the gold-fields inland than by the prospect of having to stand knee-deep in water with innumerable mosquito gnats buzzing about their heads and sipping their blood while the wood was chipped. Moreover, the wood-cutters had followed their calling a long time and had not been interfered with. Nor did they fail to point out that they were where they then were and doing precisely what they were then doing when the American Treaty was signed; that is, they were the men in possession. Further, they said through the lips of Jamaica Governors and others only too ready to help their arguments, that it was not until two years after that Treaty had been signed that Spain opened her mouth to protest.

The quarrel proceeded in a sort of slow snarl, Spain complaining, Britain and her logwood cutters holding tight and chipping away at the Campeachy and Honduran wood. In 1713 came the Treaty of Utrecht which was supposed to settle the differences between Britain and Spain, but on this particular point the treaty was of little effect, since it simply confirmed that

of 1670, the exact meaning of which, as we have seen, was ambiguous.

On September 25th, 1717, when during the four years then just ending the export of logwood from Campeachy had averaged 3,741 tons yearly (worth some £60,000), the Spanish Ambassador made one last long complaint, and shortly after, getting nothing from the British but the old evasions, Spain went for the logwood cutters seriously and broke up their settlement at the Laguna de Terminos.

It was much easier to get rid of the settlement than of the men. Campeachy lies on one side of that out-jutting part of Mexico called Yucatan. Passing completely round this, they reached territory which had originally belonged to the Mosquito Indians, always firm friends of the British. Into this region, daring Englishmen, explorers, and privateering traders had come as far back as 1576, and in 1638 the buccaneer Willis is supposed to have begun what was in the end to grow into British Honduras.

About that nucleus British settlers had been gathering and British influence extending. It was to this haven that the ejected Campeachy men came. They now received the name of Baymen, and St. George's Cay, a little islet almost opposite to what is now Belize, became their chief place of residence. They went on expeditions to Campeachy from time to time, but it was at Belize that their efforts now chiefly centred. In these new fields, or swamps, they found abundance of logwood, and, as Sir Charles P. Lucas puts it: "they formed a strong, rude and independent community, living with a sword in one hand and an axe in the other, nominally under the authority of the Government of Jamaica." In 1756, a representative of that Government reported them as numbering 300 white and coloured and 800 slaves. The Spaniards still attacked them. In 1754, for instance, they had to fight hard for what they held, and it was not until the peace of 1763 that Spain conceded anything to them. They were then, it is true, forbidden to fortify, and it was ordered that their existing fortifications should be destroyed, but it was conceded that they were to be allowed to build houses for their families!

The Spaniards soon resumed their interference with the settlement, and Britain for her part took another step in developing the settlement into a colony. In 1765 Admiral Burnaby came from Jamaica on a special mission, and the form of government was given definite shape and authority. It is an interesting fact that the Admiral was accompanied by the Captain Cook who was afterwards the famous discoverer.

Danger and uncertainty continued to surround the Baymen,
VOL. XXX.—No. 188.

breaking out every now and then into definite Spanish attacks. In 1779 the enemy came in force. St. George's Cay was seriously attacked, many Baymen captured and the rest driven away. They went to the Island of Ruatan, some distance further along the coast, and an English squadron soon arrived to pay the Spaniards back in their own coin. This it did by capturing the town of Omoa on the southern coast of the Bay of Honduras.

With the peace of 1783 the settlement of Belize was re-established. The Baymen now had logwood-cutting rights formally bestowed on them within certain limits, but Spain expressly reserved her sovereignty, and ordered the Baymen not to erect fortifications or settle on the islands. Three years later she extended the limits for cutting wood, allowed them to occupy St. George's Cay and other of the islands, but forbade them to establish plantations or to build forts.

The history of the Baymen after 1786, for about thirteen years, settled down to a routine of danger of attack including much actual interference, but it was not until 1798 that Spanish spleen against these obstinate settlers had grown to a point of resolve to drive the intruders once and for all from the region. That was the year marked by one of the most gallant and successful fights in the history of the British grip on the West Indies.

In September, Marshal O'Neil, the Governor of Yucatan, set forth with a fleet from Campeachy. He took 2,000 men on board and sailed down to Belize. The Baymen had to help them in their fight only a handful of British troops and one British warship, but they knew the shoals of that bay better than did any men to be found elsewhere in the hemisphere, and they had in their composition no atom of either hesitation or fear. Every house on St. George's Cay was given to the flames, so that if the enemy did seize that point he should gain little thereby. Then, in boats and schooners these sturdy fighters came forth, white man and black man fighting side by side, the slave beside his master, unflinching and determined. They conquered in a fight that Lucas describes as "a minor Salamis," and to this day that fight is the proud moment of memory in the history of British Honduras, and well does it deserve to be remembered. It embodied the very spirit of British courage, doggedness and resolve as well as that of British coolness and steady practical common sense, and it drew the dividing line in the story of the Colony. Thenceforward the settlement was British Honduras in name and fact, neither asking nor requiring concessions from the Spaniards, but a possession won by the sword and made a permanent part of the Empire.

T. H. MACDERMOT.

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF 'SHIRLEY'

R. L. STEVENSON in one of his essays has contrasted the novels of Fielding with those of Scott, remarking that the latter possess what the former lack, a background. "Fielding," he says, "wrote in the spirit not of the epic, but of the drama. . . . He had not understood that the nature of the landscape or the spirit of the times could be for anything in a story." In this respect 'Shirley' must be classed with Scott's novels. The chief public events and tendencies of the time loom very big in it, often controlling the lives and determining the actions of the principal characters and frequently forming the topic of their conversations and subject of their arguments.

The most momentous event of the epoch, the French Revolution, had driven the family of its hero Moore to migrate from Antwerp to England; the war which was its outcome adversely affected the little business which he had established in Yorkshire, so that he felt his own interests would be best consulted by "marrying money," and for a long time refused to entertain the idea of marriage with Caroline Helstone whom he loved. Many of the characters of the tale seemed to have been created to represent some political movement or party; Helstone the Tories, York the Radicals, Moore the Manchester School. The different attitudes of different classes and parties to the questions of the day are strikingly reproduced. The period was pregnant with great events. The story moves to the distant accompaniment of the march of armies, the slow—often tediously slow—but all the time uninterrupted and irresistible progress of Wellington's troops across the Peninsula. But these distant sounds are almost drowned by the nearer ones of riot and insurrection at home. The authoress has caught and reproduced in a wonderful manner the political atmosphere and temper of England at one of the most interesting periods in her history, when the Industrial Revolution was in progress, the Napoleonic War in its closing years, and there had just come into being that

school of political and economic thought that was to dominate English politics for a good part of the century.

'Shirley' should make a special appeal to us at the present time. The Napoleonic War resembled that now raging in respect of the magnitude and character of the issues at stake and of the enormity of the sacrifices demanded of the nations who took part in it. Belgium was then as now under the heel of a foreign conqueror, Russia submitting to an invasion of her territory similar to that which she had to undergo last year. The spirit of 'Shirley' is in tune with our feelings to-day. It glows with ardent patriotism and intense conviction of the righteousness of Britain's cause. It expresses a fine scorn for the peace-at-any price party whom York and Moore represented. Bonaparte was to the men and women of 'Shirley's' day what the Kaiser is to us. We, like Charlotte Brontë, still pride ourselves on the truth and modesty of British generals as opposed to the deceitfulness and boastfulness of the enemy, estimate at their proper value his showy but delusive successes, occupation of vast stretches of territory, and noisy trumpeting of victory, and are confident that a power is with the troops of Britain, "of that vigilant, enduring, genuine, unostentatious sort, which must bring victory to the side it led in the end."

We who are experiencing similar difficulties and enduring similar trials, can enter more fully into the feelings of our forefathers, better appreciate their difficulties, and shall rate more highly their achievements than any other generation of Englishmen since "last in pride of place the eagle flew." Distance makes the view appear a mass of lofty mountains and everlasting hills, of which one seems to grow out of the sides of its fellow with no intervening spaces of flat uninteresting country. So time deals with the wars of former epochs, giving future generations an impression of a great and rapid progress of glorious events, in which one victory follows close upon another like the triumphal cars in a Roman triumph. But 'Shirley' reminds us of the long and dreary intervening weeks, months, sometimes even years of stalemate, when "England's blood was shed and her wealth lavished all, it seemed, to attain most inadequate ends." Meanwhile numbers of people lost all hope of ever defeating the "unjust, grasping French leader" and began to clamour for peace. The Government of that day had to contend against difficulties that have not yet confronted us. Charlotte Brontë estimates that at the period with which 'Shirley' deals quite half the people of England were opposed to the war and would have welcomed peace on any terms.

Many circumstances helped to weaken their resolution. The Orders in Council, by prohibiting all trade between neutral

countries and France, had provoked a war with the United States and shut us off from her market, with the result that our manufacturers were unable to dispose of their goods. "You should step into my warehouse yonder," said Moore, "and observe how it is piled to the roof with pieces. Roakes and Pearson are in the same condition." The poor were in great misery and distress, prices were high, labour plentiful and cheap, and there was about this time a succession of bad harvests. We are told that Moore held his land, house and mill at a somewhat high rent, "for these war times were hard and everything was dear." The expeditionary force that Wellington commanded did not greatly outnumber the first contingent that Canada sent to the aid of the Mother Country in the present struggle; so war did not then drain the labour market and occasion a scarcity and high wages. The unemployment which was the result of industrial depression was aggravated by the peculiar circumstances of the time; by the complete transformation which was being effected in the methods and system of manufacture, and which consisted in the substitution of machinery for hand labour and the supersession of the domestic by the factory system. In 'Shirley' we see this transformation in process, Moore fitting up his mill with the new machinery in the hope that thereby he will be enabled to produce more cheaply and to better withstand the adverse influences of the time. The manufacturers expressed their dissatisfaction in holding meetings, making speeches, and getting up petitions to extort peace; their employees in a more violent fashion in smashing the new machinery, burning mills, and in some cases even assassinating the owners. We hear of one mill-owner, Pearson, having been shot in his own house, another, Armitage, on the moor; how the dressing shop of a third, Sykes, was set on fire and burned, "the cloth torn from his tenters and left in shreds in the field"; Moore suffered twice from the violence of the rioters who on one occasion smashed his machinery and on another assaulted his mill. The times were indeed evil. The ugly spirit of Jacobinism, which a few years before had been the cause of so much "frightfulness" across the channel, seemed to have risen out of his bottomless pit and to be looking on, awaiting his opportunity to repeat in England what he had performed in France.

The manufacturers did not give many thoughts as to how the revolution which they were abetting in the methods of production might affect others besides themselves. They had imbibed and adopted the views of what is called the Manchester School, whose two fundamental ideas were those of self-interest and natural liberty; who held that the well-being of society was best promoted by each man consulting exclusively his own interest. A system

of free and unrestrained competition put no obstacles in the way of a man if he was strong and capable, enterprising and industrious. Certainly if he was weak he would go under, and his fate would be a proof that he deserved it. He had had the same chances as the strong, it was his own fault that he had not taken them, so he could not complain when he was trampled under foot by the more progressive in their advance, nor expect them to help him up again. Were they his keepers? "If I stopped by the way an instant, while others are rushing on, I should be trodden down," said Robert Moore to his discharged workman, William Farien, when the latter begged him to make his changes more slowly. "If I did as you wish me to do I should be bankrupt in a month; and would my bankruptcy put bread into your hungry children's mouths. . . . Talk to me no more about machinery; I will have my own way. I shall get new frames to-morrow. If you broke these I would still get more. *I'll never give in.*" Moore is Individualism personified, with all its characteristic merits and defects. "It is not impossible," says Charlotte Brontë, "that he had a tendency to isolate his individual person from any community amidst which his lot might temporarily happen to be thrown, and that he felt it to be his best wisdom to push the interests of Robert Gerard Moore, to the exclusion of philanthropic consideration for general interests, with which he regarded the said Gerard Moore as in a great measure disconnected." He had no patriotism, no consideration for the honour and interest of his country, and did all he could to stir up agitation against the war because it interfered with his plans for his own private advantage. We are told that the Orders in Council were with him another name for the Seven Deadly Sins, Castlereagh was his Anti-Christ and the war-party his legions.

Towards the close of 'Shirley' there are signs that the long night is drawing to a close that herald the dawn of better times. Napoleon has embarked on his disastrous Russian Expedition, the Orders in Council have been repealed and peace concluded with America; in the Peninsula victory follows victory, the long stalemate has at length come to an end and Wellington has begun the work of beating

Back to France her banded swarms,
Back to France with countless blows,
Till o'er the hills her eagles flew
Beyond the Pyrenean pines.

D. A. E. VEAL.

SOME BRITISH INDUSTRIES

II *

THE manufacture of chemicals in England is one which is likely to be extended. Meetings have been held, and scientific men have joined with chemical manufacturers to decide what steps can be taken. So far we have imported most of our chemicals and scientific apparatus from Germany, and the chemicals alone have amounted to more than £1,000,000 per annum. Germany has a particularly rich deposit of salts round Stassfurt, but we have enough in England to be able greatly to extend our manufacture of chemicals.

Alkali compounds are obtained from sodium chloride, potassium chloride, and ammonia. Sodium chloride, or common salt, is contained largely in sea water, and can be obtained by evaporation, but other salts are mixed with it, and are difficult to separate. It also occurs in the form of rock salt in Cheshire and Worcestershire, and is worked at Nantwich, Northwich, and Droitwich. The salt is obtained by mining, or by pumping up the brine, and it is evaporated in large pans called "wyches," in the open air. Alkali and chemical works are established where the salts are found, and also at Widnes, St. Helens, and Newcastle.

Salts of sodium and potassium are abundant round Stassfurt, in Central Germany. In 1860 the manufacture of chemicals was established there, and now there are more chemical factories round Stassfurt than in any other town in the world. Galicia is also rich in salts, and Wieliczka, near Cracow, has the largest salt mines in Austria. The Alpine provinces of Austria also have salts, which are mined chiefly at Salzburg.

The alkalies are hydrates of sodium, potassium, and ammonia. They have a soapy feel, and react with acids to form salts. Sodium and potassium salts are made from the chlorides, which are found naturally. Caustic soda and caustic potash are the alkalies, and are used for making soap, glass, and other substances. The nitrates are found as deposits in Chili and Peru, and are used as fertilisers, and for making nitric acid and gun-

* For preceding article see August number.

powder. Silicates of sodium and potassium are found in most rocks and soils, and are constituents of the food of plants. Sodium carbonate is washing soda, and the bicarbonate is used in baking powder.

Potassium carbonate is used in dyeing and bleaching, calico printing, and the making of soap, glass, and pottery. Potassium chlorate causes substances to burn easily, and so is used for matches and fireworks. Potassium bromide and iodide are obtained from sea water and sea-weed respectively, and are used in medicine and photography. Potassium cyanide serves in the extraction of gold.

Ammonia is obtained from the liquor of the gas works. Hydrochloric acid is added to form the chloride and the liquid is evaporated. Ammonia is used for medicinal and household purposes, and for refrigerating plant. Ammonium chloride is used for electric batteries, and ammonium sulphate for making alum, and for manure.

Calcium compounds are obtained from calcium carbonate, which is widely distributed in the form of chalk, limestone, shells, coral, etc. Quicklime or calcium oxide is obtained by heating the carbonate, and slaked lime or calcium hydrate by adding water to the oxide, and great heat is given out in the process. Lime is used for mortar and cement. Calcium chloride serves for drying gases, and the oxy-chloride forms bleaching powder. Calcium sulphate, or gypsum, is used to make plaster of Paris, and calcium phosphate for manure. Calcium carbide, with gradual addition of water, yields acetylene, which gives the powerful light of motor lamps.

Acids have a sharp and bitter taste, and form salts with metals or alkalies. The chief mineral acids are hydrochloric, nitric, and sulphuric, and the chief organic are acetic acid from vinegar, oxalic acid from rhubarb, citric acid from oranges and lemons, tartaric acid from grapes, and malic acid from apples. Hydrochloric acid, or spirits of salt, is made by the action of sulphuric acid on common salt, nitric by sulphuric acid on a nitrate, and sulphuric acid by the oxidation of sulphurous acid, obtained by heating sulphide of iron. All these chemicals could be made in England, as the raw materials are easy to obtain. The making of alloys for electrical work, and such things as gas mantles and articles made of celluloid, could be taken up.

Drugs which are in general use, and can be produced on a large scale, are made in England, but the more expensive ones have been obtained from Germany. It seems likely that this industry will be extended. Anæsthetics fell short in hospitals of France and Servia during this war, so these should evidently be made on a larger scale.

Explosives are needed for mining as well as for military operations, and mines may have to close down if they cannot obtain the necessary blasting materials. Dynamite has been made almost entirely in Germany, as one of the constituents is found only in that country. As gold and other metals are needed so much at present, mining should not be hindered for want of explosives, and some other material should be sought for. Gunpowder consists of potassium nitrate, charcoal and sulphur, and about 75 per cent. of it is nitrate. Potassium nitrate gives up oxygen, which readily combines with the charcoal and sulphur, and the heat given off in the action causes the air to expand with great violence. Nitro-glycerine is a mixture of nitric acid and glycerine. Guncotton is cotton wool soaked in a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acids, and is used for submarines, mines and torpedoes. Nitro-glycerine and guncotton are so explosive that they are difficult to handle, as the least vibration causes them to explode. Dynamite consists of an absorbent earth soaked in nitro-glycerine, and it is made into cartridges or sticks which will only explode with a violent blow or with its own fuse, and so are safe to carry about. It is generally made from a porous siliceous earth found in Germany and called "Kieselguhr" which will absorb three times its own weight of nitro-glycerine. Blasting gelatine is the latest explosive. It consists of 93 per cent. nitro-glycerine and 7 per cent. guncotton. The value of blasting explosives is that they expand equally in all directions. Gunpowder expands only in the direction of least resistance, and so is used in guns.

E. C. ABBOTT.

(To be continued.)

THRIFT IN NEW ZEALAND

THERE are several interesting features in the balance sheet of the Auckland Savings Bank for the year just ended. The number of depositors was, including depositors in the Penny Bank, 71,000, a very high proportion of the population of the city and suburbs. The net increase in deposits, about £160,000, was the greatest during the past ten years. The purpose of the Bank is to encourage thrift among the industrial classes, and how well it serves that purpose is indicated not only by the number of depositors, but by the number whose deposits are £20 and under. Of 71,000 depositors, 36,000 are in this class, 7,400 have between £20 and £30, 6,000 between £50 and £100, and 6,300 have over £100. The total to the credit of depositors is £1,780,400, an increase of about three-quarters of a million in the last ten years.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

M. LOUIS AVELINE, one of the largest Percheron breeders in France and the son of the President of the Percheron Horse Society of France, was entrusted, some time ago, with a commission for the purchase of horses for the French Government. He has been in Canada and the United States for over a year, during which time he has bought over 15,000 horses for his government, and has visited the establishments of the largest Percheron breeders. When he visited ranches in Alberta, M. Aveline expressed his surprise at seeing so splendid a collection of Percherons. Nowhere in the world, he said, could they be equalled in numbers and quality. Never before had he seen anything approaching the sight of 200 high-class registered mares on one ranch. His visit has convinced him that Western Canada can produce Percherons equal in every respect to those reared in Le Perche. The soil, climate and the wonderfully nutritive qualities of the prairie grasses of Western Canada are, in his opinion, specially adapted to horse-raising.

A GENEROUS offer has been made by the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company operating the Canada-West Indies steamers to officers at home on sick leave in Canada. To these returned overseas officers the company has offered a free first-class passage, berth and meals included, on their steamers sailing from Halifax to Demerara, returning to St. John, the number of free passages to be granted on each trip not to exceed five. The company further states that officers not wishing to go as far as Demerara may leave the boat at Bermuda, Barbados, or Trinidad.

TOM LONGBOAT, the famous Indian runner, who is considered to be the swiftest of his race since Deerfoot, has joined the Canadian Army and is extremely proud of his first real "war paint." Private Tom Longboat is again under the tutelage of Tom Flanagan, who trained him for the Marathon race run in 1908, and who is himself a captain in the 180th Sportsmen's Battalion. Private Longboat left his wife and wigwam and joined a battalion at Brantford, Ontario, near the Six Nations' reserve, but when he heard of Captain Flanagan and the Sportsmen's Battalion, he ran the sixty miles to Toronto in two days. He has been transferred, and is to become a member of the scout section.

THE Patriotic Acre scheme launched by the Saskatchewan Grain Growers' Association and adopted by the United Farmers of Alberta and

the Manitoba Grain Growers' Association is proving a magnificent success. Saskatchewan alone will probably contribute over 3,000,000 pounds of flour, which will be presented to the British Government to be used for the relief of distress caused by the war, or in whatever way the Imperial authorities consider best. The Saskatchewan Fund recently showed 5,180 acres promised, and 33,000 bushels of grain and £1,464 in cash actually received at Moose Jaw. These contributions are equivalent to approximately 1,670,000 pounds of flour of the best grade, and there is more to come. The bountiful crop of last year has helped materially to swell the proceeds of the Patriotic Acre, and there has never been a year in Canada when the majority of farmers could better afford to give an acre of their crop to a worthy cause; for last season's harvest was a record in area, in average yield and in total yield.

AFTER-THE-WAR problems are being considered by both the New Brunswick Board of Trade and the Provincial Government. The Council of the former body has received several very valuable treatises on immigration from the members. In an address delivered before the Board, Mr. Murray, Minister of Agriculture for New Brunswick, stated that the Government had been considering a scheme for caring for immigrants, and would make it public shortly. Mr. Murray intimated that hereafter the Agricultural Departments of the three maritime provinces would co-operate on certain important lines of activity. He also spoke in encouraging and optimistic terms of the future of New Brunswick as an agricultural province, particularly with regard to dairying and sheep-raising. He paid an eloquent tribute to the farmers of the country for their splendid response last year to the Empire's call for greater production.

THE Canadian Pacific Railway has already commenced work on its announced policy of providing homes for returned war veterans, and has engineers at work in the irrigation section east of Lethbridge, Alberta, laying out twenty ready-made farms of ninety acres each, on which returned soldiers will be placed. These farms are situated in the choicest section of the irrigated district.

AN interesting problem in arithmetic is suggested by the departure from Port Arthur, Ontario, of the freight carrier, *W. Grant Morden*, for Port McNicoll, Ontario, with the largest wheat cargo the world has seen. The ship carried 490,720 bushels of wheat, a quantity which, if ground into flour, would produce 109,050 barrels or 32,060,700 loaves. This quantity of bread would suffice to feed the entire population of Canada for four and a half days. The arrival in a British port of one such ship would exercise a marked effect on the British wheat markets, and it was a simple problem in arithmetic to estimate the number of such units necessary in a fleet of wheat ships carrying flour sufficient to maintain the populace of these islands or the armies in Europe for a stipulated period.

A REPRESENTATIVE commercial correspondent writing from Calgary observes:—"I feel that we are on a better basis to-day than we have ever been—that is more substantial. We have had the nonsense and

pride well taken out of our heads. We are not trying to get rich quick on unearned increment. We have our whole mind and thought and attention diverted towards production. We are living well within our incomes. We are paying our debts and we are thrifty and industrious. The country has passed through various experimental stages, and we now know what the Western prairies are well adapted to produce to advantage, and altogether Canada is well on the way to very excellent conditions."

THE report of the Secretary of Agriculture for Nova Scotia for the season 1915-16 states that while root crops have been somewhat below the normal yield, a record crop of hay was secured, and the pasturage has been excellent. As a result all live stock have benefited, and the dairy cows produced 10 per cent. more milk than in the previous year.

The returns of the live stock in the province are as follows :—

Horses	70,395
Milch cows	145,460
Other cattle	162,993
Sheep	226,406
Swine	60,119
Poultry	1,136,763

showing an all-round increase of practically 5 per cent., with the exception of beef cattle, which has risen only 1 per cent. Fruit growers have had a smaller crop of apples, but the somewhat higher prices obtained have compensated for this shortage. This increase in value also applies to farm produce generally. Agricultural societies have advanced by twenty, the number now eligible for the Government grant being 247. Continued interest has been manifested in the short courses held at the Agricultural College, Truro, although war conditions caused a reduction in attendance as compared with normal times.

APPROXIMATELY 20,000 farmers in Ontario treated their seed grain with formalin this spring as a protection against smut, largely as a result of the campaign waged by the Ontario Department of Agriculture last year. Ontario farmers will thereby save a million dollars this season. Last year the damage to barley, wheat and oats in Ontario from smut was about five million dollars. The serious nature of the loss led the Department of Agriculture to inaugurate a movement to educate farmers to a realisation of the importance of seed treatment. Advertisements giving directions for treating the seeds were inserted in all the rural papers of the province, and thousands of handbills were distributed. The result is shown in the increase of 400 per cent. in the amount of formalin used.

RECENT developments at both silver and gold mining camps in Ontario have been very encouraging, especially in the number and in the value of the many new discoveries made in the gold camp and in the rise in the price of silver which stimulated the silver mining industry in Cobalt. The various producing companies in Porcupine were all striving towards a higher production by increasing their mill capacities, some of them to almost double the daily tonnage. In Cobalt new mining companies, that have been idle for some time, have re-opened.

THE coal wealth of the Province of Alberta has been described as being almost illimitable. The lignite coal deposits of the province are enormous, and exist in practically every district. The coal is found close to the surface and therefore easily obtained. The amount of bituminous coal in this province is also enormous, and is the principal exporting variety. The chief supplies are mined in the Livingstone range of mountains south-west of Calgary and in the Brazeau district in the same direction. It is interesting to note that the public schools in Spokane, U.S.A., are now burning Alberta mined coal.

THE gold production in Ontario for 1915 shows a considerable increase over the previous year: 411,588 ounces of gold, worth £1,700,278, were produced, compared with 268,942 ounces, worth £1,105,953 in 1914, an increase of over 53 per cent. The producing mines were seventeen in number, twelve being in Porcupine and five in other parts of the province. This large increase is to be credited mainly to the mines of Porcupine. In 1914 the gold from this camp had a valuation of £1,038,158 against £67,778 from other parts of the province, while for 1915 the figures are £1,516,153 and £184,125 respectively.

VICTORIA BEACH and Grand Marais are two new summer resorts which have just been opened on Lake Winnipeg by the Canadian Northern Railway Company. These lake-shore settlements are within easy reach of Winnipeg and are on the fringe of the forests. With the growth of the city and the constant extension of the existing summer resorts, due to development and the stoppage of foreign travel due to the war, the demand for local beach resorts has increased enormously; hence Victoria Beach and Grand Marais. The beaches consist of a hard, white sand, without stone or boulders. In some places the sand rises in dunes. Victoria Beach is specially adapted for residential purposes, having all the natural attractions necessary. It also possesses an excellent harbour. Grand Marais will be used chiefly for picnics and will be developed as a general summer resort.

THE wheat crop of Nova Scotia promises to exceed that of last year both in quantity and quality. In King's County the wheat land has been doubled. Two Government-aided flour mills were opened a year ago at Berwick and Baddeck. The farmers have discovered the best varieties of wheat for the soil and climate, and the mills have proved their ability to produce the highest grade of flour. On the dyke lands and meadows of Hants, King's and Annapolis counties the grass is very heavy, and while the damp weather has not assisted apples and some other crops, it has stimulated the growth of grass. The Government hay-pressing plant, which has done excellent service at Windsor preparing hay for shipment to Flanders and Britain, is likely to be well occupied.

DESPITE the fact that the year 1915 opened quietly for British Columbia, the value of last year's output in metals alone exceeded £6,000,000, and may ultimately, when full returns are available, show an increase over 1913, which was a record year. The Consolidated

Smelter at Trail had a remarkable year. It handled more ore than ever previously in its history, and embarked on extensions which involved over £300,000. A new zinc smelter is being installed by the company to handle the vast tonnage available. The outlook for 1916 is that of a record-breaking year in both value and output.

FOUR new Canadian pioneer battalions are to be organised. They will be composed chiefly of hunters, trappers, lumber men, railway construction men, and men who have had practical experience as builders. Two pioneer battalions have already been organised, one for the east with headquarters at Toronto, and the other for the west with headquarters at Winnipeg. The Canadian soldier has proved himself almost as adaptable as the proverbial "handy man" of the navy, but it is felt that this utilisation of special talent will prove invaluable.

NOTICE of an application to be made at Ottawa for an Act to incorporate the Manitoba-Ontario Railway Company has been given. The company desires power and authority to construct and operate a railway from Fort William to Falcon Island, thence across the Lake of the Woods to Winnipeg; also a line from Fort William to a point on the international boundary between Rainy Lake and Pigeon Bay, and a branch line between Manitou Lake and Dryden, thence to a point on the Transcontinental Railway within the district of Kenora.

SOUTH AFRICA

IN the course of his annual address in Pretoria to the shareholders of the National Bank of South Africa, Limited, the chairman made some very informing observations concerning the commercial, agricultural and financial conditions prevailing in South Africa during 1915. Referring to the general position of the country he mentioned first the gold mining industry, the progression of which, he tells us, is sound and on highly satisfactory lines, the output for the Union having been £38,627,461 in 1915, as against £35,588,075 the year before. Diamond mining, practically suspended at the commencement of the war, is now being partially resumed. The year's production within the Union was valued at only £1,676,138 compared with £5,512,919 in 1914, a figure very far below the normal output owing to the war, and probably last year's output was mainly from the River diggings. He hoped, however, that the loss to the country which this falling away represents is purely a temporary phase; fortunately, demand for the stones remains good. The output of tin was valued at £340,428, an increase of nearly £30,000 on the figures of the previous year, and although perhaps the progress of this important industry is on the whole a little disappointing, it is satisfactory to find there is no need for despondency. Copper has been in great demand, and during the year was produced to the value of £817,793 as against £629,355 in 1914.

As concerns coal no very material alteration is shown in the quantity produced, and had it not been for disabilities in connection with freight a much greater export trade would doubtless have been done. The

diversion of a good deal of shipping to South African ports from the Suez route has, however, beneficially affected the industry. The output for the Union for 1915 was valued at £2,121,000 as against £2,258,000 for 1914. In 1915, wool to the value of £5,380,031 was exported as against £4,238,205 in the preceding year, but the export of mohair shows a decided falling off. The value of ostrich feathers exported was no more than £743,772. Lesser demand for luxuries, drought and the vagaries of fashion are the more powerful factors which have united against this industry. Drought has caused severe mortality among the birds, but perhaps the consequent falling off in the output should not be regarded as an unmitigated evil. "As I have said in the past it is imprudent for farmers to specialise in this industry to the exclusion of all other branches of farming: and I would again urge those concerned to pay proportional attention to the production of other commodities.

"With regard to the maize crop, substantial as this production already is, what is grown must be infinitesimal as compared with what might and what doubtless will be produced. The mealie has a favourable reception in the London market, so that with freight available an outlet for the product should never be lacking. Proper development of the farming industry is dependent upon the prosecution of extensive irrigation, but under present conditions and possibly for some time to come it would be found difficult to attract the requisite capital for adequately following out this policy, and in the meantime we must be dependent on private enterprise. Wattle bark to a value of £195,244 was exported in 1915. This marks a decrease, but it is pleasing again to refer to the enterprise shown in erecting plant in this country for the extraction of tannin.

"The fruit growing industry is one which merits more than passing notice, and this year I would refer especially to the very promising branch of citrus cultivation. It is anticipated—and I think quite reasonably—that a large export trade in this class of fruit will be built up. The incidence of our seasons gives us an advantage in the European markets which I hope will in course of time be turned to the best account. The fruit growers might also give more attention to the development of preserving, canning and drying, in which enterprise our excellent sugar industry should be an available and important ally. The outlook for the sugar farmers is good, there having been opportune rains.

"A feature of peculiar interest is the beginning which has been made in the exportation of meat, and although operations have as yet been on a modest scale it is understood that the experiment has not been discouraging. The promoters of this enterprise are, I am sure, deserving of the special thanks of our stock farmers. It seems to me there is to be a great and increasing demand for meat in the large markets of the world, and it is of the highest importance that we in South Africa should leave nothing undone to equip ourselves for participation in this trade. Little is heard regarding the possibilities of South African Fisheries, but it would certainly seem that our long coast line must contain possibilities which will one day be exploited to a degree not attempted to-day, and

in this connection it is instructive to remember what the fish harvest of Canada means to that country. Already we have a not inconsiderable fish drying and canning trade. While on the subject of new industries I should make allusion to the projected manufacture of ammonium sulphate, which is one closely allied to farming, and we view with satisfaction this enterprising venture.

"South African producers generally have been experiencing favourable markets, high prices having ruled for many commodities, but exporters have been handicapped by scarcity of vessels and increased cost of freight. It would perhaps be opportune to sound a note of warning that with the prices of many articles at the present high level, there is danger to be apprehended from a fall when conditions of supply and demand adjust themselves. Generally speaking, however, the economic conditions of our country are favourable, and were we not in the midst of an almost world war the future might be contemplated with pronounced optimism."

Passing to the future, the chairman reminded his audience that we must not forget that the terrible loss of life also represents loss of capital. "Our conclusion must be that at the cessation of hostilities, the world generally will restart business with an enormous portion of its capital lost. The result will probably be depression in business and heavy taxation. No doubt the strain which is being undergone will produce various changes. It is, for example, contended in some quarters that the British system of education borders on the effete, and I am not prepared to deny that there may be a substratum of truth in this assertion. What reforms are necessary in this respect will, let us hope, be promptly introduced, for brains and efficiency are assets which count more and more as time goes on and competition intensifies."

THE following are the Customs imports, exports and revenue collections (in their respective order) of the Union of South Africa for May, 1916:—

Cape Town: £822,697; £280,081; £113,972.

Port Elizabeth: £956,616; £305,826; £117,951.

East London: £402,763; £429,863; £46,754.

Durban: £1,229,320; £425,134; £107,986.

Johannesburg: Nil; nil; £65,585.

Lourenco Marques: £151,544; nil; £9,865.

Other ports and stations (a): £49,597; £27,021; £15,892.

General Post Office: Nil; nil; £11,864.

Totals: £3,612,537; £1,467,925 (a); £488,969.

(a) Does not include the gold exported.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

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THE COMMONWEALTH CONSTITUTION OF AUSTRALIA

AUSTRALIA has an area of about 3,000,000 square miles, a coast line of 13,000 miles, and a population of about 5,000,000, 83 per cent. of whom are native born. The value of its production in 1913 was £219,000,000, and of the oversea trade £157,000,000. The trade is primarily, to the extent of about 70 per cent. of the exports, with the mother-country, following on the whole natural lines; but it is suggestive of the significance of the policy of reciprocal arrangements that, when in 1906 tariff revision was being considered, of the £27,000,000 of Australian goods imported into the United Kingdom, goods only of the aggregate value of £148,000 were taxed, while £21,575,000 of imports to Australia from the United Kingdom were subject to duties.

The War Census of this year showed private wealth at £1,000,000,000, and roughly £204,000,000 as the annual income of persons resident in Australia. Seasons, of course, affect yield; but wheat production, at times, approximates to that of Canada, although in oats the sister Dominion far outstrips Australia.

Customs, the chief source of Federal revenue, yielded £15,000,000 in 1915-16 out of a total of £40,000,000. In pre-war days the Federal expenditure, the measure of revenue, was about £25,000,000; but the estimate for the current year was a little under £90,000,000. Two years' pure defence expenditure amounted to £70,000,000. To this must be added then unpaid and unascertained sums, probably bringing the total war expenditure for two years to something over £80,000,000. The expenditure of six States, about £47,000,000 (including railways, which

are productive), brought the total expenditure of the Commonwealth and the States to about £140,000,000.

The public debt of the States in 1915 was £343,000,000, or about £69 per head; with the Commonwealth debt added the total would exceed £400,000,000. Our local borrowings, for war purposes, have been a great success. About £35,000,000 has been raised at, allowing for freedom from income tax, £4 13s. per cent., though good private investments were obtainable at 5 per cent. Just before I left, the Treasurer announced that this year he would raise locally about £50,000,000 more, and cables show that there is no doubt as to the patriotic response.

Since 1910 the Commonwealth has taken over the Note issue. Previously the average circulation of the banks and of Queensland, in which Note issue is State, was about £5,000,000. In May the issue (not the circulation, as about three-fourths of the issue were held by the banks) was about £44,000,000, secured by a gold reserve of, in April, 36 per cent. The excess above the normal circulation required by trade and general exchange may be regarded as a loan.

Now as to the assets. I have mentioned the private wealth. Part of the debt, about £180,000,000, is represented by 23,000 miles of State and some Federal railways. The return of a little under 4 per cent. on capital for the State lines shows a profit over interest and working expenses. State railways, managed by non-political Commissioners under special Acts, are at least as well managed as private lines elsewhere, and are run primarily in the interest of the using public and of development, and secondarily as commercial concerns. Other great public works, such as waterworks, telegraphs and tramways, some directly remunerative, all indirectly conducing to development and the amenities of life, bring the total to a large amount, about £350,000,000. In addition the land, only a small percentage of which is sold, belongs to the States.

Revenue is raised by direct taxation as well as by Customs and Excise, the facile method with an unequal pressure on persons of small means. There are two land taxes and two income taxes more or less progressive, and estate or succession duties on death—in each case Federal as well as State. Combined, the State and Federal income taxes are about as high as the Imperial tax. In cases of some large estates not subdivided by will the succession or estate duties together amount to a fourth or fifth of the assets. The fact is, these are times of pressure, of present sacrifice; and, while extravagance must be avoided, obligations must be met.

Australia, like Canada, is a land of infinite hope and possibilities; and with development and population, the weight of

our now exceptional burdens will diminish. With these few observations on the financial position of Australia I pass on to discuss the question of its constitution.

The Australian Constitution was framed in 1897-8 by a Convention of fifty members, elected by the people of five States. The first tentative draft, made at the Adelaide sitting, was referred for suggestions to the Parliaments of the Colonies represented, and was finally settled at sittings in Sydney and Melbourne. As framed, it was submitted to the electors of the Colonies on a referendum. New South Wales, the largest Colony, had fixed by Act a minimum majority of 80,000, which was not attained at first. To the subsequent negotiations to secure in that Colony a second referendum, some of the doubtful provisions, such as fixing the seat of Government in New South Wales, but at least one hundred miles from Sydney, are due. When adopted by the electors, the constitution was enacted by the Imperial Parliament and brought into force as on the 1st January, 1901, by proclamation. Subject to some special provisions of the Imperial Merchant Shipping Acts as to navigation, the laws of a Dominion, it may be said, do not operate outside territorial limits. The principle of a decision of the Supreme Court of New Zealand, that registration of a ship, and citizenship, gave jurisdiction in voyages between New Zealand, Australia and India, was not accepted by the Privy Council. The Commonwealth Constitution, however, by covering Clause 3, especially provides that the Laws of the Commonwealth, by which, of course, is meant laws otherwise within the jurisdiction of the Federal Parliament, shall be in force on all British ships, British ships of war excepted, whose first port of clearance and whose port of destination are in Australia.

Parliament consists of two Houses. There is a Senate of six representatives for each State, with, like legislative Councils, no power of amending or initiating money enactments, though it may make suggestions; elected, like the House of Representatives, by adult suffrage, and, by Act, through the block vote, a method of election that enables a party in a State (which is for the Senate one electorate) with a slight majority, to secure the greater part, if not the whole, of the representation. In matter of fact, the Labour Party, always loyal to their nominations, at last election obtained thirty-one out of the thirty-six seats in the Senate.

In the Convention and in Parliament I moved to correct this through proportional representation; but now, apart from the doubts of some as to the efficacy of the system, established interests do not look with favour on a change of method. Proportional representation in Tasmania gives practically equal parties in the House, which, from the party point of view, may be a drawback; but, as decisive majorities among electors are

always variable and seldom large, in the national interests, which are not furthered by Parliamentary activity not based on real public opinion, may be a blessing. In Parliament, when parties are nearly balanced, it is a case for legislating or administering, on points or lines of agreement, not for forcing against public opinion the pace on party policy. Senators hold office for six years, but are elected half every three years. The qualification, as for the Representatives, is the electoral one; 21 years of age, three years' residence in the Commonwealth, and being a British subject.

The House of Representatives represents the Commonwealth on the basis of population. The membership, as far as possible, is to be double that of the Senate; why, I do not know, but probably to be in keeping with the opinions that nothing is quite logical in public affairs. Each State, however, has a minimum of five representatives. Subject to that, the number for each State, that is, the proportion of the total of seventy-two, is determined by the number of quotas of population as shown by the latest statistics of the Commonwealth. The

formula $\frac{\text{Population}}{\text{Senators} \times 2}$ gives the quota. Dead-locks may be removed by a dissolution of both Houses after two passings by one House and two rejections by another; followed by a joint sitting if, after the way of members, the Houses do not then agree.

Doubtless, in these days of small populations and great legislative activity, the machinery of Government may be beyond apparent needs. But time in the case of young countries corrects proportions. The thirteen original States of America and their then population of about 3 millions, are now expanded to forty-eight with a population of nearly 100 millions. Nevertheless, there is an opinion abroad that Federation should have been followed by some compensatory economies. Reforms are slow. At present—after years of advocacy by the few who, in cases, pass from memory when their views are adopted by opponents or tepid friends—for State and Federal administration, there is a movement in favour of uniformity in such matters as electoral machinery, land valuation for taxation; and a slight set towards cutting down surplus State machinery.

The division of powers is strictly Federal. Federalism, which means such a measure of national legislative union as is consistent with State authority in matters of purely local interest, involves, as the United States Supreme Court said (*Ableman v. Booth*, 21 How, 516), “separate and distinct sovereignties acting independently of each other within their respective spheres.” Some powers are concurrent, some exclusive, some, such as direct

taxation, independent. In these days of continental parties, when, without proportional representation, a minority almost half a nation in size may be powerless for years, liberty, as Lord Acton said, depends on division of power. Indeed, the early history of all federal systems shows disinclination to recognise the surrender, to a central and over-riding authority, of even necessary general powers. Washington in 1794 had to call out troops to prevent a rising in some of the American states. The Preface to the Hartford Convention of 1814, called by States then jealous of Federal power, spoke of "more mighty efforts to rescue from ruin some portion of our beloved country."

Jefferson condemned the so-called usurpations of the judiciary, which, he said, was advancing its noiseless tread like a thief over the whole field of jurisdiction. Even in Australia, during the first three or four years, State authorities were on the alert. In one State some talk of assumed breach of faith raised, for a while, the question of "secession." But time brings apprehension and the working touch with inevitable conditions. The powers of the Commonwealth consist of 39 articles, enumerated in section 51 of the Constitution. A few powers only: the power to legislate as regards Customs and Excise, the seat of Government, the Federal Public Service, Territories, and in substance the Commerce powers; are exclusive. Except direct taxation—which is independent, for one direct tax does not modify or relate to another—all other powers are concurrent; that is, when the Federal Parliament legislates in the matter, such as Bankruptcy or Insolvency, the inconsistent State enactments are superseded. There are points, though not many, at which it is difficult to see whether the matter is federal or State. General powers have to be read in the light of many and changing facts. But, though it may not be easy to determine the moment at which darkness takes the place of light, there is a clear distinction, applicable to the great majority of the hours, between day and night.

Take the much discussed and very comprehensive commerce power. "The power to regulate Commerce," says Judson, "is one which includes many subjects, various and unlike in their nature; and whenever these subjects are in their nature national, or admit of one uniform system or regulation, they may belong justly to the class in which Congress has exclusive power or regulation." Interstate and external commerce are, therefore, within the exclusive jurisdiction of the Federal Parliament, subject to section 92 of the Constitution, which provides that, on the imposition of uniform duties of customs, which took place in 1902, "trade commerce and intercourse among the States, whether by means of external carriage or ocean navigation, shall be absolutely

free." The State power is in effect exclusive in respect of matters of purely local trade and incidental transport, which can only be regulated by the Federal power, for purposes directly and necessarily incidental to interstate or external commerce, such as manufacture and transport solely for the purpose of interstate or external commerce.

To appreciate the scope of the commerce powers, it may be wise to refer to the Canadian Constitution. By Section 92 of the British North American Act, 1867, the matters specifically set out, and generally all matters of a local or private nature, are vested exclusively in the Provinces; and by Section 91, twenty-nine enumerated matters, and these not exclusively assigned to the Provinces, are vested in the Dominion. It has been held that the general power conferred on the Dominion by Section 91, to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of Canada, extends only to matters not coming within the classes of subjects assigned by the Act exclusively to the legislatures of the Provinces (*John Deere Flour Co., Limited, v. Wharton*, 1915 A.C. 337). That power, therefore, in respect of trade and commerce, cannot touch the trade powers expressly by Section 92 vested in the Provinces. Though its scope has not been clearly defined, we may take it that, subject to the express Provincial State powers of trade, it is intended for use in regulating trade affecting the whole Dominion, on uniform, or generally on different provincial, lines not involving differential prohibitions or restrictions. That seems to be the decision of the Privy Council in *Citizens Insurance Co. v. Parsons* (7 A.C. 112). With us, on the other hand, there can be no Commonwealth regulation of purely State trade. This has led to some differences of opinion as to whether the commerce power should be unitary over the whole field or, as at present, should be divided on general and local lines. Trusts, monopolies, and combinations in restraint of inter-State or external trade are dealt with by Federal Acts, similar to those of the United States. Trusts and combinations confined to a State may be, but as the whole are not, dealt with by the State Acts. In this matter a unitary commerce power would make for one law and method of administration; but opinions differ as to whether the trust power, which is part of the trade and commerce power, should be national or be divided.

Many questions have arisen under the implied power in the United States Constitution, and the express power in ours (51. XXXIX), to make laws incidental to the execution of powers expressly given. But courts exist to solve problems which under any system inevitably arise. On points of degree and appropriateness, which such incidental powers invariably raise, there is necessarily an opening for conflict of opinion.

The judiciary keeps Commonwealth and States to their respective spheres. The judicial power is vested in the High Court of Australia which, constituted by the Judiciary Act, now consists of seven Justices, and in such other Federal Courts as Parliament creates or such courts as it invests with Federal jurisdiction.

The High Court hears appeals from State Courts in matters of pure State law, and also in Federal matters from Federal Courts and courts exercising Federal jurisdiction. The provisions as to appeal to the Privy Council are practically the same as in Canada. That is, from the High Court permission to appeal may be, but only on matters of special importance is, granted by the King in Council. Of course, the Privy Council may be approached direct from an inferior court; though, on Federal matters, there are statutory provisions, more or less ineffective, designed to prevent appeals to the Privy Council. But no appeal can be taken from the High Court upon any question as to the limits *inter se* of the constitutional powers of the Commonwealth and those of the States, or as to the limits *inter se* of the powers of any two or more States, without permission of the High Court. Again, an appellant, even in those *inter se* matters, overlooking the High Court, may appeal direct.

Under a Federal system it takes some time for those impatient of restraint to recognise that, as Bacon said, the office of a judge is to interpret law, not to make or give law. When, in *Marbury v. Madison*, the Supreme Court of the United States affirmed the right of the court to declare invalid the statute of a co-ordinate legislative body, there was trouble; but time brought acquiescence.

The Federal Constitution may be, and has been, altered by Federal Act passed by an absolute majority in each House, and, on submission to the electors, approved by a majority of the voters in each State, and also by a majority of all votes cast in the Commonwealth. It is, therefore, more flexible than the United States Constitution, which in 128 years has been altered only seventeen times; the first ten amendments being declarations of rights, in working found to be restrictive of many reforms until the Supreme Court, overruling earlier decisions of State Courts, read such declaratory provisions in the light of modern conditions. Only two of those restrictive amendments were incorporated in the Australian; the sixth providing that indictable offences against the laws of the Commonwealth are to be tried by jury, and part of the tenth, that undelegated powers are reserved to the States. Besides, judicial interpretation, while keeping within constitutional scope, widens, to meet the circumstances of the times, the practical application of general powers.

There is only one specific power to which, as being open to exercise not in keeping with the method of transferring powers by Act approved by the people on referendum, it may be well to refer. Parliament has power to legislate in respect of matters referred to it by the Parliament or Parliaments of any State or States, but so that the law shall extend only to States by whose Parliaments the matter is referred, or which afterwards adopt the Law.

As a member of the Convention, I may say that the power was not intended to be an alternative to the method of alteration by reference to the people, but was for such questions as boundary disputes. It was really copied from the Federal Council Act which, before federation, gave the Council certain ineffective powers of legislation by reference, leaving the executives of the then colonies to apply the rule or decision framed.

There were two kinds of territory for which the Commonwealth Parliament legislated:—territory that is part of the Commonwealth, like the Northern Territory recently surrendered by South Australia to the Commonwealth and to which, as such, Commonwealth laws applied, and territory, like Norfolk Island, subject to the legislative power of the Commonwealth but not to certain constitutional provisions applicable only to parts of the Commonwealth. Norfolk Island, before being placed under the control of the Commonwealth, was governed through a Chief Magistrate and an Executive Council of Six; two of whom were elected by the Elders of the Island and four nominated by the Governor of New South Wales. The powers of the Council were limited; confined in fact to road construction and repair, administering grants for public works, guarding preserves and such matters as the Governor of New South Wales deputed to the local body.

Federation—a compromise between the separation of six States with many, but not all, interests in common, and unification, which would destroy local autonomy in matters of purely local concern—has on the whole worked well. Some modifications or the apportionment of the commerce power; to make, for instance, the navigation power federal and concurrent, or of the federal industrial power, to give greater force to arbitration awards; which at present only bind parties to a dispute, not the whole industry; may be expedient, but the Commonwealth is young, and changes can follow the lines of clear necessity.

P. M'M. GLYNN.

CANADA'S JUVENILE IMMIGRATION

NOTES BY THE CHIEF INSPECTOR OF BRITISH IMMIGRANT CHILDREN AND RECEIVING HOMES

THE movement of juveniles from Great Britain to Canada has long been acknowledged by persons who have made a study of immigration to be of the highest value to the Dominion from a national and economic point of view. The immigration of children differs from our general immigration system in that the Government offers no special inducements and carries on no propaganda to that end, but holds out every encouragement to those promoting the cause, and provides protection for the young settlers arriving within our boundaries. The work of transplanting orphaned and needy children from Great Britain to Canada is purely charitable and philanthropic in character, but like other forms of immigration, it is subject to certain rules and regulations, long since found efficient and satisfactory to the Dominion Government.

Although well-nigh four decades have passed since the first organised band of juveniles landed at Quebec, very little is known as to the object sought by the promoters of the movement. This is perhaps mainly due to the unostentatious manner in which it has been conducted. It may therefore not be inopportune to mention that the object in view is to safeguard the future of the child by assisting him to another portion of the Empire, where his potentialities may best be developed and where his prospects in life will be immeasurably brighter than if left to struggle along against the evils of poverty and overpopulation. No demand whatever is made on the people of the Dominion for monetary aid. It follows therefore that a responsibility rests on the Government, and not only the Government but Canadians generally, to make the lives of these youthful Britishers happy and comfortable.

Of the many complex questions confronting the student of immigration problems, none present a more interesting field for study than that of child immigration. Upon this subject the present war throws an interesting sidelight. The varied

organisations interested in bringing juvenile immigrants from the British Isles to Canada and placing them in foster homes here, evidently inculcate their protégés with that love of country which is so valuable an asset when the life of the nation is threatened. The Canadian overseas contingents for active service abroad already count amongst their numbers no less than six hundred and fifty-four young men brought to Canada in their childhood by the various organisations; and who now upon reaching manhood and hearing the call to arms, have offered their services in defence of the Empire, one portion of which was their birthplace and another portion their adopted home. Moreover it should be remembered that these young men are not leaving for the front because there is nothing for them to do in Canada. Nearly all are agricultural labourers who have voluntarily given up comfortable and sure situations to defend the Empire.

The direction and distribution of the children is almost altogether to agricultural pursuits. Our farmers need the help of the boys as apprentices and the girls as housemaids. It is very exceptional, therefore, to find an old country boy earning his living in a town or city. In trades and casual occupations we have a sufficient number of Canadian youths to fill every vacancy. Under our public school regulations the attendance at school of boys over fourteen years of age is unnecessary. In rural Canada the opportunity for obtaining a good common education for the juvenile immigrant, up to the age of fourteen, is everywhere provided. However, the department has under its supervision numbers of children past the age of compulsory attendance but still at school, the majority doing well and not a few heading their classes. Few cases have been brought to my notice of the British juvenile immigrant having to work harder than the sons of the Canadian farmers. There are of course certain seasons of the year when it is necessary for everyone to work longer hours than at ordinary times in order to harvest the crops.

Very deep interest is taken by Boards of Guardians in the progress and welfare of the children they emigrate. The opinion expressed in some quarters that these young folk are forgotten by friends at home when they are sent oversea is quite erroneous. The Local Government Board depends upon the Department of the Interior to see that the children receive such fair play and kind treatment from employers and foster parents as is their right, and it is one of the conditions of their being permitted to leave the motherland that the agencies to whom they are entrusted shall act with promptness on the reports and recommendations made by the officers on this side, in order to prevent undue prolongation of discomfort, neglect or ill-treatment

by the children at the hands of designing and undeserving persons who may chance to obtain a boy or a girl from the "Home." In this connection the following statement was made in the Report of the Royal Commission on National Resources (1912), Part I., "Migration":—

Careful inquiries conducted by competent investigators show that emigration affords one of the surest means of extracting children from pauperism, and the influence of evil surroundings.

At present only a comparatively small use is made of this method, but looking to the satisfactory results obtained the Board considers that the guardians would do well in further exercising their powers of emigrating children.

Annual reports are made by the Dominion officers on the children, which are communicated to the Board at intervals during the year and by them forwarded to the guardians concerned.

In some instances guardians have complained that these reports had not reached them until it is too late for them to take action, but the Dominion officers communicate directly with the responsible agency at the time of making the report of any case that appears to be unsatisfactory, and experience has generally resulted in remedial action being taken where necessary long before the report has come into the hands of the guardians.

TABLE showing number of juvenile immigrants who have arrived in Canada during the past fourteen years, together with the number of applications received by the various agencies during the same period.

Fiscal Year.	Children Emigrants.	Applications Received.
1900-1	977	5,783
1901-2	1,540	8,587
1902-3	1,979	14,219
1903-4	2,212	16,573
1904-5	2,808	17,833
1905-6	3,264	19,374
1906-7	1,455	15,800
1907-8	2,375	17,239
1908-9	2,424	15,417
1909-10	2,422	18,477
1910-11	2,524	21,768
1911-12	2,689	31,040
1912-13	2,642	32,417
1913-14	1,799	30,854
Total	31,110	265,381

It has been proved over and over again that an average boy will always find in this country more than average opportunities, and if he is honest and industrious he will turn out a useful and independent citizen. Denis Crane, in his interesting book 'John Bull's Surplus Children,' says: "The self-made man is the national ideal, and the humbler the origin the more creditable the rise. It is the man as he is to-day, and what sort of a fight he is putting up in the struggles of a nation in the making, that wins the admiration or excites the contempt of the born Canadian."

During my recent visit to Great Britain I was informed that there was a growing demand in many portions of England and Scotland for boy labourers. It is quite possible that as a result of the present European war, the places of recruits are being filled by boys, but in the natural course of events this is but temporary, and at the close of the war there will be again an overplus of boys for available jobs. I have no knowledge of an old country lad becoming a pauper and a charge on the Canadian people. Some of course do not rise to positions higher than "hewers of wood and drawers of water," but none have become reduced to such deplorable conditions of destitution as I have personally witnessed amongst children of their original social strata in the towns and cities of the old land.

In the past thirty-one years, that is to say from 1883 to 1914, 10,132 juveniles have been emigrated from poor law schools. The average expenditure incurred per child for 1913 was £16 2s. 8d., and the average annual emigration was 327 children. These figures do not include other classes of child immigrants—not members of families—such as those from Home Office schools and privately maintained homes, and are, therefore, only a fraction of the total emigration of this class, which has been estimated at 70,000 boys and girls. While for departmental convenience and other official reasons we differentiate as to the children, there is no significance whatever in this circumstance, save that their emigration was determined by different authorities in England.

Having mentioned the interest and concern shown for the children after leaving the motherland, it will not perhaps be superfluous to refer to a memorandum, handed me when in England last summer, dealing with the general question of emigration of juveniles from poor law schools as approved by the Local Government Board. This memorandum sets forth in part :—

The emigration of these children was effected almost entirely through agencies having receiving and distributing homes in Canada. The children, after being placed out by the agencies with families in Canada, have the right to return in case of necessity to the distributing homes, and otherwise the agencies are required by Provincial Immigration Acts to maintain effective supervision over the children. This supervision includes the keeping of a record of the persons having the custody of each child from time to time, and of the terms and conditions on which the child is placed out, the visitation of the child at least once a year, the investigation of any complaints made as to the child's treatment, and the taking of all necessary steps for protecting the child from ill-treatment or neglect.

The Government of Canada welcomes the coming of juveniles who are poor and willing, have had preparation at home and been under supervision for a definite period, and are young and

capable of being taught industry and discipline. It is very generally recognised that some of our successful agriculturists, business and professional men owe their start in life to assistance rendered them at the impressional periods of their lives, by persons who are still promoting emigration to Canada for the deserving but helpless and needy youth of the United Kingdom. No accident of birth or untoward circumstance of early life can dispossess an ambitious boy of his equitable right to take his place as a good citizen of the country of his adoption.

G. BOGUE SMART.

BEATTY'S BATTLE

THE brave are dead—

But Nelson, from beyond the sinking sun,
Cries to the land he loved—"They run! they run!"
Take breath, ye who still breathe; the fight is won.

Back to the safety of their land-girt lair
Rush the proud fleet, that could so greatly dare
To taste for one short day the North Sea air.

Back they return to Wilhelmshafen's mines,
Back—hurrying, straggling not in those proud lines
Which flaunted to Hood's few their battle signs—

Back with their dead. Back—battered, leaking, spent,
Their proud masts sagging and their steel sides rent;
Back, beaten, incomplete;—we are content.

Leaving their sunk ships grinding in the sand,
Leaving their dead with our dead, hand-in-hand;
Leaving the might they could not understand:

Leaving us masters of the heaving sea,
Leaving the world, as we would have it, free:
Leaving us victors, and humanity—
Our dead died not in vain.

GEORGE BIDDER.

THE WEST INDIAN SUGAR INDUSTRY

REFERENCES to the West Indies are frequent in the literature of a former period. The rich uncle of the novel, who conveniently died at the end leaving his fortune to the hero or the heroine, generally dwelt "somewhere" in those islands where Rochester met his mad wife. In current literature references to the West Indies are as rare as they were once frequent; and it does not require much penetration to discover the cause. For literature mirrors the chief features of the times, and soon ceases to reflect those which have ceased to be prominent.

So the novels of the first half of the nineteenth century reflected the political and commercial prominence of the West Indies, which were at that time the richest and most flourishing of our colonial possessions. The West Indian interest in London and the two great ports of Liverpool and Bristol possessed, owing to the wealth of its merchants, great political as well as mercantile power. The Indies were regarded as a sort of El Dorado. Thither migrated ambitious and adventurous spirits, as they now emigrate to Australia and Canada, to whom the Old Country did not offer sufficient opportunities of growing rich quickly. A hundred years ago the wealth, the trade, the magnificence of the Indian merchants were on everyone's lips. "To have a plantation in Jamaica," we are told, "was to be an object of envy; it was much the same as being an Indian nabob."

The flower that smiles to-day
To-morrow dies.

The West Indies have now sunk to such an insignificant position in the Empire that we nearly overlook them altogether. Their products and wealth are of little comparative value. Little is spoken or written about them. Few emigrate to them. It was inevitable with the development of other parts of the Empire that the Indies should decrease in relative importance to the whole. But their decline has been not only relative but actual.

The well-being of the West Indies depended too exclusively

on one particular industry. "Some idea of the importance of the sugar trade," says Mr. H. de B. Gittins in his 'Economic and Industrial Progress of the Century,' "may be gained from the fact that the average annual amount retained in England for home consumption alone was 2,500,000 cwts. in the period 1795-1805. This does not include the amount sent away for foreign use, which would bring the total up to nearly 4,000,000 cwts." A century later, in 1906, Mr. Lloyd George, the then President of the Board of Trade, stated that in 1901-2 we imported from the West Indies 62,000 tons (1,240,000 cwts.), an actually smaller amount than in 1801, when our population was less than half what it was at the later period and the consumption of sugar per head much smaller. Various causes contributed to the decline; the prohibition of the slave trade in 1807, followed by the total abolition of slavery in 1833; the entrance into the field of other sugar producing countries: lastly and chiefly, the competition of another plant.

It was a German chemist named Marggraf, born at Berlin in 1709, who first discovered how to manufacture sugar from beet. France and the countries at the time subject to her were destined to turn this discovery to good account during the Napoleonic Wars, when the British blockade cut them off from the usual source of supplies. It became the policy of Napoleon to encourage the production of beet sugar by means of bounties and other forms of State aid. By finding a substitute for cane sugar he was both satisfying an urgent need of his subjects and striking a blow at one of the sources of the wealth of England, the hated enemy. By this means it is estimated he did more harm to our colonial trade than he ever did by means of his ships of war. After his fall the same policy was continued in those countries in which the beet sugar industry had become established. It soon became evident that formidable rivals to the West Indies had arisen, and that to hold their ground the latter would require every assistance that it was in the power of the Mother Country to bestow. This was the moment that Great Britain abandoned them to their own resources.

For the West Indian sugar trade at one time enjoyed a form of State protection. Imperial preference is not a new idea. When in 1806 the duty on colonial sugar was 30s. per cwt. that on the foreign article was even higher, almost prohibitive in fact, no less than 63s. per cwt. Of course, when England adopted Free Trade in the middle of the nineteenth century, the preference given to colonial sugar was dropped with everything else that savoured of the "accursed thing." We chose the moment when we ought to have adopted stronger measures to protect our trade to abandon even those which we had hitherto

employed. When you see the enemy making great preparations for an attack the sane and natural course is to strengthen your defences, raise and drill fresh armies, and strain every nerve to turn out vast quantities of munitions. But our wise and far-seeing forefathers chose that moment to rase their fortifications, disband their armies, and break in pieces their cannon, saying the while to the foe: "Enter in and dwell here, friend. I trust you, and fear not that you will spoil my goods." The shining lights of the Manchester School misunderstood the nature and purpose of German competition as completely as the Trojans those of the Greek horse which they so unwisely admitted into their city. German commercial policy has been aggressive not defensive, has aimed less at preserving its own commerce than attacking that of others. What British traders had to encounter was not the fair and healthy rivalry of individuals, who enjoyed the same advantages and laboured under the same difficulties as themselves, but a persistent, relentless, determined commercial hostility, backed by all the wealth and power of the German State, and deliberately aiming at their ruin. Our guileless rulers, content with our position and themselves innocent of all aggressive designs, credited others with similar good intentions, and fondly imagined that we should not need weapons more for defence than offence. When others came against us armed and equipped we could offer no resistance, and had to yield one place after another. Among these which suffered most from these attacks was the West Indian sugar industry.

Towards the close of the nineteenth century the depression in the latter became so great that in 1897 a commission was appointed to inquire into the matter. The conclusion to which they came was that the sugar industry in the West Indies was "in danger of great reduction, which in some cases may be equivalent, or almost equivalent, to extinction." The effect on the colonies generally was deplorable; estates were being abandoned and numbers thrown out of employment. It was to be feared that soon many of the colonies would not be able to provide for the cost of their own government and administration. A once flourishing industry and rich and prosperous colonies had been reduced to this under Free Trade.

Without doubt the chief cause of the ruin of the West Indies was the competition of Continental beet-producing countries, which Free Trade left them powerless to resist. It was the opinion forced on the West Indian Commission, although two of its three members were Free Traders. They allow that the depression was "not due in any considerable degree to extravagance in management, imperfection in the process of manufacture, or to inadequate supervision consequent on absentee ownership,"

and that "the removal of these causes, wherever they exist, would not enable it, generally, to be profitably carried on under present conditions of competition. They were satisfied that the real cause was the competition of other sugar-producing countries, and in a special degree to the competition of beet sugar produced under a system of bounties. It is also affected by high protective tariffs."

When the commission came to consider the question of a remedy for this state of things they entered on more difficult and contentious ground. No hope could be entertained of the abandonment of the Protectionist policy by Continental nations. They were hardly more sanguine regarding the chances of discovering a substitute for the sugar industry. In several islands there was no industry, or industries, that could completely replace it, and in others only after the lapse of a considerable period and at the cost of much displacement of labour and consequent suffering. In these circumstances it seemed that the only course for Britain to adopt was to retaliate in kind and impose countervailing duties on bounty-fed sugar; but this did not commend itself to the majority of the commission, who were more devoted to Free Trade principles than the interests of the West Indian Islands. However, a step in the right direction was taken a few years later, in 1903, when Britain became a party to the Sugar Convention, under which she penalised imported sugar which had received bounties. The fruits of the Convention were already manifesting themselves in the shape of improved conditions in the colonies when, in 1908, the Liberal Government, who had come into power in 1906, decided to withdraw from it because it was a departure from Free Trade principles as they conceived of them.

The war has ruthlessly exposed the foolish and short-sighted policy which allowed a flourishing colonial industry to perish and the home country to become dependent chiefly on foreign supplies. It is estimated that at the outbreak of the war we were obtaining no less than two-thirds of our sugar from Germany and Austria. "The Empire is capable of producing all the sugar it consumes," said Mr. Hughes, "yet we placed ourselves in bondage to Germany and Austria, eating an inferior article because it was cheap, while fertile sugar-producing lands throughout the Empire were allowed to lie idle." It is not surprising that on the outbreak of hostilities there should have been a great scarcity of sugar, and that prices should now be high. Our worst fears regarding a sugar famine have so far not been realised, but the war is not over yet, and it is too early in the day to congratulate ourselves on our escape. If we had been wise in our generation and chosen to depend on Imperial rather

than foreign sources of supply, the country would not be in the predicament that it now is.

There is a passage in an old Greek writer which runs, "Seest thou, beside the wintry torrent's course, how the trees that yield to it save every twig, while the stiff-necked perish root and branch." An avalanche has come down upon us, and in the midst of the havoc and confusion it has wrought old beliefs have been shattered and old principles found wanting. Are the lessons of the great and terrible events of the time bearing fruit in our hearts and minds, causing us to modify our views and reform our policy? Are we, in short, bending "in season," or are we stiff-necked like the trees which perish root and branch, as we shall perish unless we learn to adapt ourselves to circumstances?

D. A. E. VEAL.

UGANDA COTTON

UGANDA cotton is the most important agricultural product of the Protectorate and overshadows in value all other European or native grown crops. The area under cultivation, of which three-quarters lies in the Eastern Province, is estimated at 118,778 acres, and the output last year approximated 45,000 bales of 400 lb., valued at the port of shipment at £351,146. Cotton sales were rendered negative for six months from August, 1914, until February, 1915, owing to the uncertain state of the local and European markets; areas planted with the crop fell into neglect, a number of cotton trees were uprooted, and the picked cotton destroyed in certain areas as native producers lost hope of disposing of their holdings. A decrease of £94,634 has occurred in the comparative value of shipments as against figures for the previous year. The quality of the crop is good and its bulk brought clean to the buying centres. Requirements of foodstuffs and demands for porters to meet local military operations will cause a decrease in next season's output in the Buganda Province, but arrangements are in hand for increased cultivation in the neighbourhood of the ginneries situated in the Eastern Province and indications are assured that the industry will extend as facilities for transport are increased and the working of ginneries confined to the producing areas of the Protectorate. The handling of the crop presents continual difficulties in regard to transport and storage. Demands for portage are considerable at a season when natives should be occupied in planting food crops, and large quantities of cotton are exposed, detrimentally, to weather at buying centres and at the railway and steamboat termini. Efforts are, however, in hand to improve facilities for transport, and twenty ginneries are now established in the cotton-producing areas. Over 9,000 tons of cotton seed, valued at £18,172, were exported from the Protectorate in the early part of the year. The total would have been considerably greater had not increased freight rates, due to war, acted adversely on trade in this product.

CONDITIONS OF BUSH LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

A SQUATTER'S ADVICE TO EMIGRANTS

[*Concluded.*]

AND now a few words on the minimum wage which already obtains in certain industries. I cannot help thinking that sooner or later the minimum wage problem will bring about a crisis. Australians are the most generous, the most liberal and the most hospitable race I have ever had anything to do with. No people in the world are more courageous, and none more ready to forgive and forget an injury or lend a hand to anyone who is down. Most employers of labour have had to work their own way up, and are all the better judges of what the work of an individual is worth, and it is a recognised fact that they are in the habit of paying a fair wage. One man may be worth 10s. a day, another 5s., another only 10s. a week. If a minimum wage of say a pound a week with rations * and quarters were enforced, it would mean that great numbers of men not worth that payment and others past real hard work would get no employment and become dependent upon the State for support.

If an all-round minimum wage were enforced many industries requiring the employment of outside labour would have to be abandoned, especially that of dairying in outlying districts. It would be practically impossible to carry on dairying without the assistance of outside labour. Take, for instance, a dairying family residing thirty miles from a butter factory, and this is often the case. The cream is taken to the factory twice or thrice weekly by a public conveyance with a driver and perhaps four or five horses. The driver of this coach has to be paid high wages, the blacksmith who shoes the horses, the saddler who makes and repairs the harness, the coach-builder who builds the coach and keeps it in repair, the farmer who grows the corn and chaff to feed the horses, all have to pay high wages. The coach proprietor must therefore charge a high freight for the cream.

* Single rations consist of 12lbs. of beef, 9 lbs. of flour, 2 lbs. of sugar, $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. of tea. Double rations for a married man, with or without a family, are twice this amount.

Then the butter factory has to pay high wages, and the producer, as he invariably does, suffers, until he questions whether, after all his own and his family's hard and constant work, the losses amongst his stock, the dry periods when the yield of cream is insignificant, or possibly *nil*, the high price he has to pay for the carriage of his cream and indirectly for the manufacture of his butter, it is worth his while to carry on—whether in fact the value he receives for the product justifies the outlay and the risk incurred in its production.

Australia might easily be a self-supporting country. In the north the climate is tropical, in the south it is temperate with all the different grades of climate intervening. Tea, coffee, jute, tobacco, sugar, cotton, indigo, sago, rice could all be grown, and profitably grown, if only cheap labour could be procured, but without cheap labour, at all events in the tropical parts of Australia, enormous productive capabilities must remain undeveloped. These, if developed to their full, would cause Australia to become a very rich country, enable her to get free from debt, to undertake extensive irrigation works and to open up districts now practically closed by means of good railways, and bridged roads suitable for motor traffic. Under the present *régime* we may have what is known as a "White Australia," but we certainly have a "Wasted Australia."

I do not think it is realised by the people of Australia how absolutely impossible it ever will be to develop, in the least degree satisfactorily, or to any appreciable and remunerative extent, the possibilities of the coastal tropical portion of Australia by white labour alone. The excessive humidity of that climate, as is shown by the wet-bulb readings of 75 degrees and over, render it impossible for white labour to be satisfactorily and remuneratively employed. I have never had the least doubt in my mind that in the tropical coastal portions of Australia the introduction of native labour under the control of competent white men should be permitted, and I consider that in encouraging and insisting upon the development of that portion of the Commonwealth by white labour alone the Government is incurring a grave responsibility.

The great need of Australia is population,* and, for the present at all events, that population must be white. The Federal Government and the Governments of the States have, it is true, of recent years encouraged immigration, but as a whole with unsatisfactory results. One of the most direct and perhaps the chief reason for failure is due to the fact that no suitable land is available. Immigrant farmers have had either to go round the

* Australia is capable of carrying a population of many millions, and the present population is less than five millions.

country balloting for Crown leases or inspecting private farms placed in the hands of auctioneers and estate agents for sale, very often at prices which, under no circumstances, could be remunerative to the purchaser. Possessing no knowledge of colonial conditions and climate, they have attempted to gain their experience at their own expense and failed, often communicating their experiences to friends at home causing would-be emigrants to become discouraged and abandon the idea. Labourers, totally ignorant of Australian ways and who for ordinary employment could not compete with the experienced man or the Australian born, have become disheartened, and, returning to England, have persuaded their friends not to emigrate to Australia. Then we have the onerous conditions attached to the acquisition of land direct from the Crown to which I have already alluded.

With these facts before them it occurred to Mr. Herbert E. Easton of Sydney and certain gentlemen having estates or representing large interests in Australia, that some more business-like, more suitable and more satisfactory system of immigration was wanted, one applicable to every class of immigrant wishing to settle on the land—lads, farm labourers, farmers, public school or university young men either with or without capital. With these ends in view a scheme has been devised for which a capital of £1,000,000 is required. The proposed directors are gentlemen having the interests of Australia at heart, and possessing a thorough knowledge of Australian life, climate and other conditions, men who realise how necessary it is that Australia should not only be populated, but populated with the right kind of people. They are to receive no fees for their services nor are they in any way to make profit out of the scheme. Under the proposal white immigrants from the United Kingdom, the United States and Europe generally * will be eligible, equality of treatment will be strictly meted out, and the merits and wishes of each immigrant, irrespective of his nationality, will be carefully considered. There is no intention or desire to create a land monopoly against Australians; in fact, the scheme will aid them to secure land more quickly and on more reasonable terms than at present is possible.

The purchase of the necessary land would be undertaken by the best experts in the different States, men fully cognisant of local values. If the scheme were carried out I have no doubt that considerable profits would accrue, a dividend of 6 per cent. on the capital invested could easily be paid and a sinking fund provided. Under the scheme all profits over 6 per cent. and all proceeds of land sales to immigrants are to be set apart for the

* The scheme was formulated before the War, and the question of receiving the subjects of enemy nations would have, of course, to be re-considered.

purpose of assisting settlers and facilitating the further acquisition of lands and farms.* The proposal has my whole-hearted support.

I do not believe in the success of any scheme having for its object the settlement of population on land leased from the Crown unless the land is situated where extensive irrigation works have been undertaken by the State. And I do not see how, for many years to come, any system of freehold on these lines can be introduced, though it might be worth while to ascertain how these things are arranged in the United States, where extensive irrigated settlements already exist.

It is thought that in view of the well-populated conditions of the United States, a fact borne out by the growing demand from America for Australian food products, that many Americans may emigrate to Australia. Some have settled there already, and I hear of several large estates in different parts of Australia being purchased by Americans.

As regards the question of Government, much as I admire and thoroughly endorse Australia's Imperial and war policies, I cannot approve of her home policy. Especially am I opposed to the spending of borrowed money on the improvement and ornamentation of cities and towns, presumably in order to gain labour votes, the consistent passing of Socialistic legislation for the same reason,† and the neglect to open up the country for settlement purposes.

I believe in the encouragement of private enterprise, in the non-interference with the laws of supply and demand, in the freedom of human action, in the protection of the rights of property as well as of the rights of the individual. I desire to see the country developed and opened up by irrigation works, which should march with the settlement of the land, the construction of good bridged feeder roads, the encouragement of land settlement, and the abolition of the present onerous and restrictive conditions attendant on the acquisition of Crown lands. I am opposed to the imposition of protective duties except where absolutely necessary, and to the present excessive and almost confiscatory form of taxation. In my opinion any tariff system which practically excludes foreign competition is injurious; and I subscribe to the view that maximum prices and minimum rates of wages are fundamentally and economically unsound and quite unnecessary. As Sir Walter Raleigh very pertinently observed, "Government can do much for commerce by leaving it alone."

* Particulars of the scheme may be obtained from the Secretary, Central Emigration Board, Cromwell House, Surrey Street, Strand, W.C.

† "It is the intention of the New South Wales Government at an early date to nationalise the liquor trades. The success attendant upon the establishment of Government shops for retailing fish will lead to the establishment, as early as possible, of quite a number of State monopolies, including meat, bread, petrol, and other commodities."—*Morning Post*, April, 1916.

The same is equally true as regards the land. It is absolutely essential, more especially in Australia, to encourage in every way a maximum production from the soil.

The poet has described Australia as a "Land of fierce endeavour," and so it is, it is a splendid country, I think the coming country, it has the finest climate in the world and, take it all round, the best soil; everything in Australia grows luxuriantly. The one thing lacking is population.

In order that Australia should go ahead and occupy its proper place in the world I regard as essential the following conditions:—

(1) The abolition of the present onerous and restrictive conditions attaching to the acquisition of land direct from the Crown.

(2) A careful and just valuation of all vacant Crown land, situation, quality, accessibility and water supply being taken into consideration.

(3) The selling of Crown pastoral land in blocks of from 2,000 acres to 10,000 acres in sheep country, and from 3,000 acres to 20,000 acres in cattle country, from 10 to 100 acres in coastal agricultural country, and from 50 to 500 acres in dairying, fruit-growing and wheat-growing country. The only conditions of sale should be the fencing of the land and the upkeep of the fences, its utilisation for the purpose for which it was purchased, and the regular payment of instalments due to the Crown.

(4) The gift of the freehold of certain Crown lands to persons ready to comply with the conditions of fencing and use only. There are large areas of practically valueless waste Crown land in many parts of the State, and on these unalienated lands little or no improvements are made. If the freehold were given to settlers who would fence them and use them, the State would greatly benefit, because it would be to the interest of the holder to improve the property to its utmost capacity, in order that he might derive as large a return therefrom as possible. By this means not only would considerable areas of land hitherto wasted be used, but the holders would have to pay Stock and Shire taxes.

(5) Immigrants should be discouraged from taking up Crown land, except in irrigated areas, until they have gained "Colonial experience."

(6) The construction of good roads, especially suited to motor traffic, should be energetically pushed forward. These roads would act as feeders to the railways and open up the country in a way nothing else could do. The motor has eliminated distance and will tend to alter greatly, if not entirely, conditions of life in the back blocks of Australia.

(7) The same advantages as are offered to immigrants should be offered to Australians.

(8) The cessation of excessive and confiscatory taxation in connection with landed property which, if continued, must cause both the withdrawal of capital from the country and prevent the introduction of new capital.

(9) The realisation of the fact that it is not in the interests of the country to "burst up" arbitrarily the large estates, nor is it just to owners.

If the owners of large estates in districts more or less accessible refuse to sell or to lease land to persons desiring to bring it under cultivation and who are prepared to pay a fair market price for it, the Government should place a super-tax on that land. But before taking action every care should be taken and proof given that a fair market value could be obtained or that there was a real demand for the land at a fair market price.

On the other hand, there are many large estates situated in more or less inaccessible parts of the State on which but a small area of land is suited to agriculture or to dairying settlement, and which can only be profitably worked on a large scale—land on which the small pastoralist, selector, or homestead lessee cannot, without a struggle, in ordinary seasons make a living unless he obtains outside work, which, unless permanent employment is given, is difficult to procure. Estates of this kind, for many years to come, can only be worked with any prospect of success as large areas. It is true that hardy Australians, thoroughly cognisant of all the conditions, hardships and vicissitudes of settlement and life in the Bush, can and do succeed in making a home and a living on land such as I have described, but I am convinced that generally no one not born to the life would have much prospect of success, and though I am an advocate of agricultural life for the small settler, I cannot advise anyone to become a pastoralist unless he can obtain a considerably larger area of land for the purpose than is possible under existing conditions,* and unless he can purchase his stock without borrowing money. Even then, as I have endeavoured to show, the life of the pastoralist is highly speculative and very different to that of the agriculturist.

(10) That the interests of the State be given more careful consideration. By this I mean that the constant endeavour made to draw all the produce of the State to Sydney, when other ports exist in reach of the zone of production, should cease. The development of the State should be encouraged at the expense of Sydney instead of the development of Sydney at the expense of the State.

Before much can be done to encourage emigration these suggestions should be carefully considered by thoroughly com-

* I am speaking of Crown land only.

petent authorities—men who have themselves lived on the land, who have the interests of the country at heart and who have learnt as I have that “Australian seasons do not run on scheduled lines,” that Australia has many advantages, but that it is no Eldorado. I cannot but think if the Government were more inclined to consider what was best for the country instead of for Party the lot of the settler on the land, in whose hands the productiveness and the consequent wealth of the country really lies, would be vastly improved.

Many authors have endeavoured to portray Australia and Australian life in various fields of literature. Too often however the work has been done with imperfect knowledge and in some cases with biased minds. It may perhaps help the settler intending to transfer his home from this country to the Australian Bush if I mention the books which in my opinion give the most accurate impression of Australia and the life and character of its inhabitants. First of all I would place Rolf Bolderwood's delightful series of novels, all of which are founded on fact, especially would I call attention to ‘The Squatter's Dream’ and ‘Nevermore.’ Then there is that charming book by Frances Campbell entitled, ‘Two Queenslanders and Their Friends.’ I should also mention ‘Geoffrey Hamlyn’ by Henry Kingsley and ‘On our Selection’ by Steele Rudd and the poems of Lindsay Gordon, Lawson and Barty Paterson.

Concerning the soldier or sailor who, when the Imperial situation has once again resumed its normal state, desires to migrate to Australia and to settle there, I would impress upon him that everything I have stated applies equally to him as to any other emigrant to whom I have referred. I would especially emphasise the fact that any great scheme of settlement on the land which encourages a purely pastoral life for inexperienced newcomers with insufficient capital, or which involves settlement on unirrigated land, or on land which has no absolutely permanent supply of water, would be a very grievous mistake, and must in time result in disastrous consequences. I do not hold with the idea of indiscriminately settling people on the land: many are neither fitted nor really inclined for such a life, and many more who might think they were both fitted or inclined would discover, after they had tried it, that they were mistaken. I do not believe in encouraging migration to Australia unless the whole facts are placed before the intending emigrant. If this is not done the emigrants, after arriving in Australia, will find themselves surrounded by conditions entirely unfamiliar, and which it will be very difficult, if not impossible, for them to understand.

CHARLES A. G. LILLINGSTON.

EUROPEAN HISTORY AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

THE nineteenth century was not only the age of education for all, but also an age when a knowledge of science and mathematics was daily finding new applications. It is not, therefore, surprising that the new schemes for girls' education laid increasing stress on these subjects, and that less importance was given to the humanities with the single exception of classics. No one doubts the importance of a knowledge of science and mathematics; but is it not a commonplace that in every advance something is lost, and that our progress is in cycles? May it not be that the time has come when it would be to our advantage to give more thought to the manner of teaching such a subject as history, even though we cannot afford it more time on the time-table?

Comenius says of it that "an education with history is the most important element in a man's education and is as it were the eye of his whole life," and Locke urges that history is "the great mistress of prudence and civil knowledge, and ought to be the proper study of a gentleman or a man of business in the world." In both cases the history of which these eminent authorities speak is "the view of the whole current of time and the several considerable epochs which are made use of in history." It is this history which I believe should be more definitely and clearly taught in our schools to-day. It is a history which includes some knowledge of the ancient Empires, and, at the other end of the centuries, some appreciation of the work done by the Empire builders and by the greatest men of modern America. My plea is therefore for the teaching of general rather than European history.

Twenty years ago a conference was held at Notting Hill High School on the teaching of history. The paper was read by Mrs. J. R. Green, the historian. After comparing and commenting on the schemes for history teaching sent to her by the various

schools which took part in the conference, she went on to emphasise the need for a wider acquaintance with general history. She says :—

From all that I have been saying you will perceive that in my opinion the school course should consist mainly of what is in a slighting way called outlines—in other words that the girl should have had the great panorama of history unrolled before her, and without being confused by too much detail, should have seen the continuous story of man in due succession of time and in just proportions of great and small, and gained some notion of the continuity, the relations and the contrasts of that strange record.

This is the method of history teaching which I advocate. Mrs. Green goes on to say :—

Her work at school should be a very simple preparation for the knowledge of later and more mature years. . . . All that the teacher can do is to give to the pupil some sort of familiarity with names and the sequence of events and the relations of individuals—so necessary for the later learning of all true history—and above all to waken some impression of that great panorama which it unfolds of the life of nations, the procession of peoples, of men worthy to be praised. In quickening curiosity, admiration, and affection, in cultivating the beginnings of wisdom, it is of all studies the most elevating and enlightening to the soul, and the most stimulating to character; and if in childhood it is unfit to discipline the mind it can certainly arouse imagination, enlarge thought, stir the noblest qualities of the heart, and lay the foundations of a true philosophy.

All who have taught general history will recognise the justice of the claims set forth so clearly, admirably and concisely by Mrs. Green, and to them I would venture to add a few considerations on its value as an instrument of education. General history is full of glamour and adventure, of wonder and heroic deeds. The sense that “the world is so full of a number of things” can not only stir the mind to curiosity but plant in it that feeling of reverence on which all true education must be based. It is this, I think, that Bishop Stubbs meant when he wrote, “The study of modern history is, next to theology, and only next in so far as theology rests on a divine revelation, the most religious training that the mind can conceive.” It is a study which will touch even the severely practical young person, the plodder, the “stupid” girl to a sense of wonder at the greatness of the world. And wonder is a marvellously potent force in the development of the individual. “He who wonders reigns and he who reigns shall rest.” A knowledge of the main outlines, the chief facts of general history would do much to give to our children in the elementary schools that deeper interest in life and that wider outlook which education ought to bring.

And a knowledge of general history is a key which opens up a world of art, music and poetry. There is scarcely a picture or a poem which does not become alive and so informing to heart

and mind if the circumstances which made their appeal to artist or poet are understood. The same is true of many of the works of the musicians, and it is noteworthy how comparatively few and simple are the stories of the men and women "worthy of praise" which have been the theme of poetry, music, sculpture and pictures throughout the ages.

Professor Findlay somewhere points out that "it has been a reproach to our schools that our record of human progress has been too insular." A bond of sympathy with other nations is created, at least potentially, when we know something of their struggles and achievements and of the exploits of their national heroes, the great men whom they revere. And this sympathy and knowledge our pupils must gain if they are to be free from narrowness and crudity of judgment. It will be much needed in the days to come, as will be the conviction, left by the study of general history, of the slow development of movements and of ideals. And no attempt to state the advantages of an acquaintance with general history would have any pretence to be complete without a reference to its effect on a study of the Bible. It is not only that the histories of the ancient Empires of Babylon, Assyria and Egypt make real the story of the captivity and return from exile and are a key to the prophetic books, but the whole of Bible history gains a new significance when its facts are seen in the light of a great world development touched by it, yet, in a sense, apart.

It seems invidious and almost unpatriotic to say that a detailed study of English history does not have all the advantages which have been claimed for a study of what can be at best but "history outlines." But English history is only to be understood in the light of general history. It is a part of a whole and can only be clearly understood by reference to that whole. I have found it difficult to teach English history pure and simple, and without the basis of a knowledge of European history, to girls below the age of sixteen. And the reason I think is this. There is not, in the nature of the case in English history, the same amount of material for story-telling or for the vivid descriptions of great scenes. Their place tends to be taken by a set of ideas unfamiliar to the child involved in the story of economic, political, constitutional, ecclesiastical development. Here the conceptions are abstract and the judgments passed on them are outside the child's experience. "History," therefore, too often seems to be something artificial which it is impossible for the child to grasp or to make its own. And this, I think, still remains the case in spite of the many efforts which are being made to give life to these abstractions by relating them to what is familiar in the child's experience. In some schools European

history is taught in order to elucidate events in English history. But this method has grave dangers; it is almost bound to result in the conviction that England is, and always has been, the centre of the universe, and that the English man and woman are the Adam and Eve of all history. This is a false doctrine, and so must be harmful to those to whom it is taught.

There are obvious difficulties which lie in the way of carrying out a scheme of teaching which shall give to every pupil a knowledge of the main events and great men of European history before he or she leaves school. But they are not insurmountable. As Johnson makes Imlac remark to Rasselas, "nothing will ever be attempted if all possible objections must be first overcome." The first objection is the vastness of the ground covered. But the great outstanding men and events are comparatively few, and there is in them so much that is of human interest that their stories can be told again and again, always provoking interest and curiosity. The sense of vastness, ever present with the teacher, grows gradually with the child; and it will have a clue to guide it through the maze, if its interest has been aroused in the big simple human stories which tell the tale of the greatest of mankind.

There is also the difficulty of teachers in the kindergarten and first forms. The history specialist has not always the training which would enable her to make her stories real to very little children. This difficulty would, of course, be gradually overcome if all girls were taught general history. The Froebel Unions have made a notable beginning by making the history of Part I. general history and recommending Keatinge's book. There is also the difficulty of books: this is a very real one. The ideal history book is not written. I am inclined to think that what is needed is a library of history stories from which the teacher, if she is not a specialist, can supplement the outline textbooks of which there are many in existence.

But the main difficulty seems to lie in the lack of unanimity as to method and as to the value of different kinds of history at any given stage in a girl's career. It is still possible for girls who have passed from one school to another to finish their education without their stock of historical facts having extended beyond, say, "the Stuart period." In mathematics and science, in classics and modern languages, some degree of standardisation has been obtained, so that it is possible to know what to expect on these subjects from a well-taught fourth or fifth form girl. But this is not the case in history. It is this unmethodical variety in history schemes which is the main obstacle to reform. The difficulty could, I think, be removed if we realised the enormous importance to every child of the possession of the

broad outlines of world history as a minimum with which he or she leaves school.

The educated and intelligent person in the Continental countries, in America, and in the colonies, knows something of the place of England's national heroes in the development of their country's greatness, and of our domestic and foreign struggles and achievements. Too many of our intelligent and educated English men and women know nothing of the great facts and the great people who have influenced the fate of other countries; and, which is perhaps an even more serious indictment, are ignorant of the very names of those Empire builders whom those living in the colonies revere as their heroes. This ignorance is, I fear, an acknowledged fact. Professor Findlay, writing in 1902,* says: "Our pupils nowadays leave school fairly acquainted at times with English history, but they have never been taught to bring this into relation either with ancient history or with the fortunes of other European countries in modern times"; and Miss Hughes, in 'Citizens to Be,' published last year, says, "We may have begun to think imperially, but neither the nation nor its schools have begun to think internationally."

I should like to urge that if the gravity of this ignorance be admitted it ought to be possible, by organised effort on the part of history teachers, to devise some scheme by which the main facts, not only of English, but also of general history, pass into common knowledge. To quote again Mrs. Green, "the pride of patriotism stirs a lofty ambition that in the progress of learning the way should still be led by our own country, 'whose glory,' as an Englishwoman said two hundred and fifty years ago, 'confers some honour upon every one of her children, and with it an obligation to continue in that magnanimity and virtue which hath found this island and raised her head in glory.'"

M. M. BERRYMAN, M.A.

(*Head Mistress Notting Hill High School*).

* 'Principles of Class Teaching,' p. 235.

SOME BRITISH INDUSTRIES

[Concluded.]

GLASS has been known from the eighth century. It is a silicate of potassium, made by heating potash with sand until they melt and combine, forming a clear transparent substance. Potash is used for the best kinds of English flint glass and for Bohemian glass. Soda gives a greenish tint, and is used for bottle glass. Lime is often added to make it more lasting, and lead to make it soft and workable. As flint is another form of silica, ground flints may be used. Coloured metallic oxides are added if required.

In glass-blowing a tube is dipped into the melted glass, and the drop at the end is blown out into a bubble, and then into a large hollow sphere. To make a flat sheet of glass this is quickly cut, and allowed to open out on a table. If any other shape is required, the glass bubble is blown out into a mould. Plate glass is not blown, but is rolled out with steel rollers. The temperature at the works is kept very high, so that the glass will remain soft while it is being shaped. Annealing is the process of cooling slowly. If glass is quickly cooled the outer part becomes solid before the inner, and the tension or strain causes it to crack. Glass vessels for scientific purposes are specially made to stand heat, and are generally so thin that the heat is equally distributed through them.

Glass is generally made in the coal districts where alkalies can easily be obtained, as St. Helens, Newcastle, Birmingham, London, Dudley and Bristol. Window glass is made in Belgium. Venice and Bohemia have been noted for centuries for their beautiful glassware. Most of the glass for optical instruments and chemical purposes has been made in Germany, chiefly at Jena. There is, however, no reason why these industries should not be set up in England, and if rumour speaks truly, a beginning has already been made in this direction.

Leather is made by soaking hides in a solution of tannin, to make them hard and firm. Any skins except those needed for furs can be used for this. Tannin is extracted from the bark of

trees, generally oak, beech and larch. The skins are first scraped and cleaned, and then put into tan pits, where they are soaked for some months in the tannin solution. This process makes them hard and impervious to water, and is called "tanning." Some leather is untanned, that is, other substances than tannin are used to harden it. Skins for gloves are often soaked in alum or other salts. Wash-leather is made by rubbing in oil. Russian leather is tanned with birch bark, from which it gets its characteristic smell. Canadian and American leather is tanned from the bark of hemlock spruce, and that of Turkey and Asia with tannin obtained from the valonia of acorn cups. Morocco leather is made from goatskin. Saddlery and harness are made from pigskin.

Leather is made chiefly in Britain, the United States, Germany and France. The materials—hides and bark—are easy to obtain, and the manufacture is generally carried on in large towns, where a supply of leather for boots, shoes, gloves, bookbinding, saddlery and harness is needed. In England it is made chiefly in the Midlands, about Northampton, Stafford and Leicester. This is a cattle district, and used to have forests from the trees of which the tannin was obtained. Northampton, Leicester and Stafford make leather, and also boots and shoes Leeds; and Bermondsey make leather only. Walsall makes saddlery and harness, and Worcester, Hereford and Woodstock make gloves. Dainty and fashionable shoes are made in Paris and the United States, and gloves in Paris and Brussels. We import leather goods, excluding boots and shoes, to the value of about £13,000,000 a year, while our export only amounts to £5,200,000. This is an industry that might be extended, especially with regard to the better kinds of shoes, gloves and fancy leather goods.

Paper is made from rags, vegetable fibres, or wood reduced to a fine pulp in water, and dried to a thin paste. The best paper is made from linen rags. The pieces are shaken, torn to fine shreds, and boiled with chloride of lime to form a pulp. China clay is often added to give firmness. The pulp passes on to a continuous belt of wire gauze, and thence to a band of felt which dries it. It is then pressed between rollers to make it uniform in thickness, and comes out as a continuous roll, several miles in length. Writing paper is dipped into size, which gives it a smooth uniform surface; otherwise the ink would run into the substance of the paper. Blotting paper, tissue paper, and brown paper do not need this.

Paper-making is carried on where there is good water, chiefly in Kent, Derbyshire, Berkshire, and Lancashire. Printing and publishing are done in London and all large towns. We spend £7,600,000 a year in importing paper, and only export it to the value of £3,600,000.

Earthenware, bricks, pottery and china are made of baked clay, different kinds being used for different purposes. Bricks are made of ordinary clay, moulded into shape, and baked in brick kilns. Fireclay resists the action of heat, and so is used for lining furnaces. Earthenware and potters' clay are finer kinds and vary among themselves. China clay or "kaolin" is the finest of all. It is white in colour, and is used for making china and porcelain. Kaolin is made by the decomposition of granite rocks, and is obtained from Devonshire and Cornwall. It consists chiefly of felspar, which forms the white milky-looking crystals in granite.

The clay is roughly moulded into shape with water, and made into its final form by the potter's wheel. Bone ash or phosphate of lime is often added to harden it. The ware is then placed on shelves in large ovens and strongly heated. The pattern is now printed or painted on, and as the ware is quite porous and would not hold water, it is dipped into glaze and then baked again. The glaze is a kind of glass consisting of melted silicates, and it forms a complete and smooth surface, so that the vessels will now hold water. Porcelain and china are very expensive for several reasons. The best clay is used for them; the articles are moulded into beautiful shapes and are often hand-painted, but they are liable to crack in the furnaces after all and so be spoilt.

English pottery is noted all over the world. It is greatest in amount, and includes some of the best ware. The district in North Staffordshire called "the Potteries" is the chief one, and it makes all kinds of china and earthenware. It has the advantage of brick clay for the kilns, fire clay for the ovens, potters' clay for the earthenware, and coal; while the china clay needed can easily be obtained from Devonshire, and flints for hardening from Derbyshire. Worcester and Derby are noted for fine china and porcelain, and the Doulton works at Lambeth for art pottery. English china ranks in the first place with the Dresden china of Germany and the Sèvres china of Paris. In spite of this we import about as much as we export. The import of china and glass for 1913 was about £4,500,000, chiefly from European countries, and the export was £5,200,000.

Musical and scientific instruments, clocks and toys are largely made in Germany, especially in Bavaria in the villages of the Black Forest. Wood is abundant there, but communication is difficult. The manufactures, therefore, are those which are made chiefly of wood, need skill in making, and are not heavy to send away. Nuremburg, Stuttgart, and Munich are the centres for these goods, but they are generally made in the homes of the people. The Germans have a good technical education and are skilled workmen, and as all children are taught a trade they are

able to help. The Germans are scientific and musical, so that the making of instruments has been left to them almost entirely.

England has taken up some of these industries, and they afford a good opening for skilled mechanics. Clocks and scientific instruments could be made with advantage, but the musical instruments need a mechanic with a knowledge of music. Toy making is being taught in some schools as part of the training in handwork, and should be continued as a trade.

New industries are rapidly springing up as a result of the shortage caused by the war, and if these are to succeed changes in other directions should be considered. There must be (1) Increase in technical and scientific education; (2) Scientific research in connection with each industry; (3) Some form of protection, at least for the new industries; (4) Increased trade with the Dominions; (5) Adaptation in the making and despatch of goods; (6) Metric system in weights, measures and money. A good deal of scientific and practical knowledge is needed in all industries, and skilled workers who have had a good training can rise to the highest positions. There is now a large proportion of unskilled workers, and these can seldom rise above the purely mechanical work. Trade schools should be established in all towns, to teach especially the industries of the district, and agricultural schools should be found in all the farming districts. If the school age is raised from fourteen to sixteen this will probably be done, and the two years can be spent in learning a trade. For boys this could be varied with a certain amount of military training, and for girls with instruction in the laws of health. All would then begin as skilled workers, and though much mechanical work would still have to be done, the quicker ones would soon rise beyond it. Having a thorough knowledge of his work and the science underlying it, a man will naturally take more interest in what he is doing, and will feel more pride in the success of the whole business.

Scientific research should be carried on in closer connection with the industries than at present. Scientific experts with a good practical knowledge should be attached to each industry to make experiments, work out improvements and labour-saving devices, and find out the causes of any failures. This is needed in manufacturing and in farming, both of which are more deeply based on scientific principles than appear at first sight. There are now technical and agricultural colleges, and the manufacturer refers to the professors when necessary, but there should be the closest possible connection, and a great deal more research, especially with regard to farming. Germany has spent a large amount of money in research in connection with its manufactures, and it has an excellent system of technical education. Its rapid

success in trade generally has been largely due to these two causes. Those who are to fill the higher positions in the factories or as merchants should have a good scientific and practical training, and should be encouraged to do research in connection with their work.

Though many people are opposed to the principle of protection of industries, thinking that it creates monopolies, prevents competition and keeps up prices, yet it seems evident that some help must be given, at least for a time, to new and reorganised industries. The initial expenses are so great before any profits can be made that a very large capital is needed. Companies will probably be formed to raise the capital, but shareholders will not risk their money unless there is some guarantee that there will be a sufficient market for the goods. Many new industries are being started, and if they can be protected against undue competition they are likely to succeed. The capital will probably be readily subscribed, and work will be provided for a large number of people; unemployment will be considerably lessened, wages can be kept up, work insured, and the products can soon be made more cheaply.

The trade returns for the years 1909-1913 show that our foreign trade is much greater than that with our oversea possessions. The British Empire includes countries in all climates and in all the different areas of production. We could, therefore, obtain everything within our own territory. The needs of the Empire could be satisfied in the Empire. It is an advantage both to us and to the Dominions to have mutual trade. They are young countries yielding agricultural and pastoral products, and needing machinery and manufactured goods, while we need the first and produce the second. Canada could produce enough wheat to feed the whole Empire, and Australia and New Zealand enough wool to supply the factories of the world. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa contain a large amount of coal, but it is not much worked. The British Empire produces about three-quarters of the world's gold, and about half the world's diamonds.

IMPORTS, 1913, IN MILLION £.

Products.	Foreign Countries.	British Empire.
Grain	55	30
Meat	42	14
Wood	28	5
Cotton	68	2
Wool	9	28
Total imports . . .	577	191

In the past it has been said that contracts were often given to German firms rather than English because the Germans were willing to make goods exactly to pattern, to give an estimate of price, and deliver punctually at the time agreed upon. If this were so, the difficulties can easily be removed. After the war there will be great changes and great opportunities. It is well, therefore, to look ahead and be prepared. All our industries must be extended, and placed on a firm paying basis. Education should lead up to them, and research continue and expand them. The loyalty and patriotism which have been shown in the war must show themselves again in faithful work for the increase of British trade and the advancement and development of the British Empire.

E. C. ABBOTT.

NUT BUTTER

THE export of palm kernels from Sierra Leone during the year 1915 show an increase in volume of 3,709 tons and a falling off in value of £55,280. The total quantity exported amounted to £39,624 tons, valued at £504,033. The decrease in the market value was very noticeable. The price in Europe at one time came down to £12 10s. a ton, whereas in the preceding year the price never fell below £16, and in 1913 the lowest figure was £21 a ton. Prices, however, rose steadily towards the end of the year, and reached £19 a ton in December. In 1913 Germany secured 43,016 tons of this commodity out of a total of 49,201 tons exported. In 1915 the whole quantity exported went to the United Kingdom, where crushing mills have now been established. Nut Butter, or Margarine, into the composition of which the oil of the kernel largely enters, is now recognised as a nutritious form of diet. It is at present in general use in the United Kingdom, and will probably sustain its place on the market even when the present inflated price of butter again becomes normal.

OVERSEA NOTES

CANADA

THE cultivation of medicinal herbs is being tested at Langford, British Columbia. About fifty varieties of these have been planted. The growers will keep an exact record of the progress of each, and hope to have valuable information tabulated at the end of the season. It is confidently believed that the enterprise will succeed. Ten years ago it was considered impossible that a profitable trade in bulbs would have rewarded the industry of growers in Vancouver Island, yet a bulb farm and many smaller concerns are now in full operation. Care, knowledge and industry, as well as experience, will be needed, but the growers are sanguine that the climate, soil and other conditions will make the growing of medicinal herbs near Victoria both possible and profitable.

THE proposal to harness the tides of the Bay of Fundy at Cape Split, Nova Scotia, by means of a current motor which would pump the water into huge reservoirs on the cliffs above, the descending water furnishing the power, has been followed by a suggestion to utilise the Reversing Falls at St. John, New Brunswick, in a like manner. The suggestion has come from the acting resident engineer of the Public Works Department, who says that a stronger current is obtainable at the Falls than at Cape Split, and that there would be a longer period between tides for a motor pump to operate. All attempts to utilise this tremendous energy have so far failed, but by the application of a current motor such as has been suggested at Cape Split, and by the erection of reservoirs on the heights above, it is thought that at last a way has been found by which the Falls may be harnessed.

SOME interesting experiences of life in Western Canada are given in a letter received from a settler who went to Canada from England nine years ago. Before leaving England he was a clerk in the Civil Service and was quite a thorough novice where farming was concerned. For some time after landing in Canada he hired out with farmers in order to learn the work. Then he felt confident of himself and took up the Government free grant of 160 acres, and some time afterwards an additional pre-empted 160 acres, making 320 in all, or half a section. The district in Saskatchewan in which he settled was sparsely inhabited, and he was then over 40 miles from a railway station. Now he has every prospect of becoming prosperous. He started with no other

capital than good health, courage and faith in himself. He had a splendid crop last year, and everything bids fair this year for another big crop. He has just added two more rooms to his house, and has had a windmill constructed.

THE Ontario Government have put into operation the new northern development policy, by means of which settlers receive from the Government cash loans. The work is in charge of a loan commissioner, with an assistant commissioner and a superintendent. The chief duties of the latter official are to keep in touch with the needs of the settlers and help them in every possible way. A new feature of the development plan is the decision to widen its scope in order to enable the Government not only to advance money to settlers but to do their purchasing for them. When a settler needs horses, machinery, seed or lumber or other supplies for the land, the agents of the Government will be at his service to secure the best at the most favourable price. It is believed that purchases can be made in this way much cheaper than the settler could get the equipment himself. Before a loan is made, the settler must show exactly for what purpose he wants the money, and the commissioner will judge whether his request can be granted. Although cleared land will be the basis of loans in general, the regulations will permit aid being granted to any *bonâ fide* settler, even if he has not had time to get his land cleared to any extent.

PRELIMINARY work in connection with the establishment of modern shipbuilding yards on Poplar Island, on the Fraser River, British Columbia, has been commenced. It is proposed to establish a £14,000 plant on the island, of which the modern machinery alone will cost £3,000. "Ways" will be built capable of handling the largest vessels in the coast trade. Preparations are being made to start with two auxiliary schooners to be used in the lumber-carrying trade. Shipbuilding activity is also being shown in other parts of the province.

THE annual report of the Lethbridge Board of Trade reveals the fact that local industries are in a flourishing condition. Coal mining operations at the Galt mines close to the city and various other collieries have been very active this season, the quantities now being shipped daily running from 3,000 to 4,000 tons. The coal mines in the Crow's Nest Pass and the towns in their vicinity, for which Lethbridge is a distributing centre, have also been very busy. The Marinaro macaroni factory in the city has had a very busy year, and war conditions in foreign countries have brought about a considerable widening of the area in which their productions are marketed. So far, however, there is no demand for labour in excess of that locally available.

WHEAT has been shipped from Canada to the British Isles from early days in the history of colonisation. In 1849 the quantity of wheat, the produce of the then "province" of Canada, exported to Great Britain was 16,698 minots (equal to 1,073 imperial bushels), of the value of £3,962 (\$19,282). After confederation in 1868 the total wheat exports

from the Dominion were 2,284,702 bushels, of which 717,604 bushels went to the United Kingdom. During the next twenty years (1868 to 1887) the total export of wheat from Canada in any year never reached 7,000,000 bushels, and the exports of wheat to Great Britain only once exceeded 5,000,000 bushels, namely, 5,048,084 bushels in 1887. According to the late Dr. George Johnson's 'Alphabet of First Things in Canada,' wheat was first exported from Manitoba to Europe in October, 1877; but it was not until completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway that Western grown wheat began to be annually exported. The first train of wheat, consisting of sixteen cars, from Manitoba to Montreal, left Portage La Prairie in December, 1885, and the Canadian Pacific line was formally opened for traffic in the following year.

From 1886 to the close of the century the exports of wheat from Canada, though annually increasing, never reached 20,000,000 bushels, the largest quantity being 18,963,107 bushels in 1898, when 18,091,962 bushels went to the Mother Country. In 1902 the total wheat exports jumped to 26,117,530 bushels, and this quantity, with occasional recessions, has steadily increased until it reached 120,426,579 bushels in 1914, after the excellent harvest of 1913, the quantity exported to the United Kingdom being 108,574,397 bushels. The quantity of wheat estimated as available for export out of the crop of 1915 was 264,173,200 bushels. The largest quantity of wheat and wheat flour previously exported from Canada in any one fiscal year was 142,574,000 bushels in 1913-14. The quantity now estimated as available for export to this and other countries is 121,599,200 bushels in excess of this amount, and represents about seventy per cent. of the total estimated wheat production of Canada in 1915.

GOLD mining in British Columbia has been progressing steadily in spite of the war. The total deposits of gold bullion received during the fiscal year ending March 31st, 1916, numbered 1,880, valued at \$2,789,350.71, an increase of 597 deposits, and \$684,214.59 in value over the amount of business transacted during the previous fiscal year, the total number of deposits received during the fiscal year ending March 31st, 1915, being 1,283, valued at \$2,105,136.12. The assay office is rendering good service to the gold mining community, and has by able and judicious management become a very important and practical help to the great mining interests in the West. The office was established in 1901, and the regulations governing the institution have been amended at different times to meet changing conditions, so that the Canadian gold miner might have a reliable and convenient market for his bullion.

A SCHEME is under consideration by which electric light and power will be available for farmers in a large part of Manitoba. It is proposed to purchase electric power from the City of Winnipeg, which produces great quantities very cheaply on the Winnipeg River, and to distribute it by means of transmission lines through the more thickly settled parts of the province. This would be following the example of the farmers in

that district of Ontario lying between Niagara Falls and such centres as Toronto and Hamilton. There farmers have for a number of years enjoyed the benefits of electric power generated from the Falls.

THE Nova Scotia Legislature is discussing a Bill for the encouragement of manufacturing and shipbuilding by exemption from taxation. The Bill provides that all land, buildings and freehold property in actual use, in connection with any manufacturing establishment in Nova Scotia established for the manufacturing of ships of iron or steel, or any combination of metals of like character, or for manufacturing in iron or steel, shall be rated and assessed for taxation for all purposes on a sum equal to the assessment thereof immediately preceding acquisition for such manufacturing purposes for a period of fifteen years from such acquisition.

THE value of each province's output of coal for the year 1915 was as follows :—

	Tons.	Value.
Nova Scotia	7,429,888	\$16,584,573
British Columbia	2,089,966	6,531,144
Alberta	3,320,431	8,136,527
Saskatchewan	236,940	361,787
New Brunswick	* 122,422	304,830
Yukon	9,724	38,896
Total	13,209,371	\$31,957,757

* Railway shipments.

The exports of coal were 1,766,543 tons valued at \$5,406,058, as compared with exports of 1,423,126 tons in 1914 valued at \$3,880,175, an increase of 343,417 tons.

IN view of the scarcity of chemical pulp in Great Britain, attention has been turned to Canada to supply the deficiency. The Canadian Commission of Conservation has just issued a report on "Forest Protection in Canada," which is of particular interest in this connection. It contains much information respecting the work of the provincial forest services, and of the Federal Departments entrusted with the care of Canadian forests. If Canada is to continue as a wood-producing country, she must conserve her resources of this natural product. The report treats exhaustively of fire protection along railway rights-of-way. Through co-operative action great headway has been made in securing the reduction of forest losses by fires traceable to railway and other preventable causes.

THE collection of exhibits at the Provincial Museum, Victoria, British Columbia, is increasing so rapidly that shortly it will be absolutely necessary to find additional quarters. The Curator reports that, if educational work is to be carried on, additional custodians should be placed in charge of some of the more important branches of natural history. During the past summer, teachers and school children evinced increasing interest in the museum, and the institution proved of great value to them. The number of other visitors during 1915 was also greater than during any previous year.

CONSIDERABLE activity is commencing to be manifested in metalliferous mining throughout the Nicola Valley. Mining men are arriving almost every day, and are busily engaged in taking up prospects located in the mountains overlooking the town of Merritt and the territory tributary to it. The Aberdeen mine, a copper property, now being operated by Seattle capitalists, is stated to be proving better with every foot of depth attained, and to give promise of becoming a big producer at an early date. Ten cars of ore shipped from this property, two of which were shipped to the Tacoma smelter, and eight to the British Columbia Copper Company smelter at Greenwood, gave returns, according to reports, entirely satisfactory to the operators. Shipments have been suspended temporarily during the construction of a waggon road up Ten-Mile Creek to the property, but the force at the mine is gradually being increased, and a large tonnage is being stored up until the completion of the road, when shipments will be resumed.

WHEN the canning industry was first established in Ontario, corn for canning was cut from the cob by hand with a knife. It was then considered good work to put up 800 cans a day. A modern factory will put up 100,000 cans a day with equal ease. The first canning factory in Ontario was started thirty-four years ago. There are about 120 factories in operation at present, and these give employment to 14,000 people. The total output of these factories is between three and four million cases, with twenty-four tins to a case. This is sufficient to provide a train load of twenty cars for each working day of the year. The average yield of tomatoes is about 250 bushels per acre. The average yield of corn runs at four tons of cobs per acre. The straw from which peas are taken for canning makes excellent feed. In some cases it is hauled back from the factories, dried and utilised as dry fodder. In some other cases it is put in a silo at the factories and sold back to farmers by the ton for winter feeding. In a few instances it is fed direct from the silo to stock owned by the canning companies.

SHIP-BUILDING is likely to develop on the Canadian Pacific coast. At a meeting of manufacturers held in Vancouver a company, capitalised at £500,000, was formed for the purpose of building sailing vessels to be operated in the lumber export trade of British Columbia. Steamships are also to be purchased as available, with a view to assisting the exportation of lumber. The absence of shipping facilities has, perhaps, done more than all else to interfere with the progress and prosperity of the British Columbian lumber industry, and the new tonnage thus to be provided ought to assist enormously in its development. The enterprise is characteristic: ships are not available to carry the lumber and Canadians set out to build them.

THE Nova Scotian apple industry is one of steady and gratifying increase. Thirty years ago the total amount for export was only 40,000 barrels, whilst now, in a good season, it reaches two million barrels. That the apple industry is remunerative is shown by the fact that profits from well-managed orchards range from 15 per cent., due in a great

measure to the comparatively low price at which fruit lands can be acquired. It is computed that not more than 10 per cent. of the land available for fruit culture has yet been planted with trees, and it is anticipated that when this area is brought into cultivation the annual output will run into many million barrels. A significant fact is that the demand for Nova Scotian apples increases in proportion to the quantity available. At the outbreak of the war the Nova Scotian apple growers feared that owing to the closing of the continental markets, Great Britain would be unable to absorb the available output. The result, however, proved that the fear was unfounded, as the whole quantity for export was taken by this country and sold at satisfactory prices.

A BUREAU of practical commercial export intelligence is to be established in Canada by the Dominion Department of Trade and Commerce. It will include a selection from other countries of such articles of import as are possible of manufacture in Canada, and their arrangement and display at a central dépôt, where they may be seen and examined by manufacturers. In short, it is proposed to gather all possible information, enabling manufacturers to determine whether they could profitably enter into competition with the producers. The articles will be exhibited from time to time in some of the larger centres in Canada. A beginning is to be made with toys, including dolls an exhibit of which will be held in Toronto. A conference of those interested will take place at the same time.

MANUFACTURING industries in Winnipeg and other parts of Western Canada are steadily increasing their production, owing to the general revival of trade. There is hardly a line which does not benefit considerably from the greater demand for merchandise throughout the West. Plants with facilities for making war supplies have been receiving a share of the huge orders placed in Canada, and this has helped considerably to keep town staffs busy in the dull season of the year. At present there is practically no unemployment in Canada. At the same time there appears to be ample labour available to meet present manufacturing demands.

THE agricultural output of the Province of Quebec was greater in 1915 than in any previous year. Weather conditions were favourable, and good crops with high prices were realised throughout the province. The chief crop is hay. The area devoted to its cultivation in 1915 was about 3,000,000 acres, and a large portion of it was exported at high prices. About 1,400,000 acres were sown to oats, and the crop was an excellent one, both as regards quantity and quality, high prices being realised for the yield of 42,182,000 bushels. Barley yielded 2,255,000 bushels, and realised good prices. The wheat grown in the province is all of the spring variety. The total crop in 1915 was estimated at 1,411,000 bushels, an increase of nearly 500,000 bushels over 1914.

REPORTS from the same Province show that a considerable expansion of the paper and pulpwood industry is taking place owing to the unsettled conditions arising out of the war. At Shipsaw near Chicoutimi, and various other centres, some hundreds of thousands of

dollars have been spent in extensions to plant with a view of increasing the output of sulphite, ground woodpulp, and newsprint.

THE micas are a series of silicate minerals which are characterised by the readiness with which they can be split into thin flexible leaves. Muscovite is the variety of mica utilised in most countries, the chief source of the world's supply of phlogopite, or, as it is sometimes called, magnesia mica or amber mica in Quebec. The deposits are usually very irregular in character, the mica occurring in scattered pockets, and it is difficult to mine it in a very systematic manner without doing a lot of waste work. Mica finds a number of uses in the electrical industry such as motor and dynamo winding, commutator ring and segment insulators, electric lights, telephones, sparking plugs, etc. etc. The amber mica deposits of Canada are comprised within an area of approximately 2,100 square miles, 1,200 of which are in Quebec. This Province produced in 1915 619,350 pounds out of a total of 1,009,350 pounds in the whole of Canada.

A DISCOVERY of interest in connection with the use of zinc in munitions manufacture has been made in Quebec by a prospector, who is said to have found valuable deposits of Gatineau zinc in the vicinity of Burbidge station. The new discovery is the result of working of previous findings, and shows ore in places from six to fifteen feet. The deposits are rich, and the mineral is much better than that found formerly.

CHROME mining in Quebec has been revived through the exigencies of the war, the mines not having been worked since the discovery of the Rhodesian deposits in 1908. The largest deposits of chrome on the North American Continent are in the Coleraine district of Quebec, where a number of pits are now operated. Owing to the increased demand and very limited supply the price has greatly increased since the outbreak of war. In 1914 only 135 tons were exported to the United States, valued at £242 or less than £2 per ton. The value of the 14,076 tons mined in 1915 was £44,257, of which 8,473 tons were exported to the United States.

CONTRACTS have been let for work on a farm colony north of Coaldale, Alberta, for war veterans. The colony has been named the "Van Horne Colony," after Sir William Van Horne, former President of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. The contracts awarded were for the erection of twenty-five sets of farm buildings, together with the breaking of forty acres on each farm.

THE immigration returns for one week show that 234 persons entered Canada from the United States compared with 110 for the corresponding week of the previous year. They had with them over £18,402 in cash, an increase of £14,603 over the week ended July 25th, 1915. There has also been a steady and considerable increase in the amount of settlers' effects taken to Canada; every week this season showing large values. During the week in question £6,330 worth were taken in. Homestead entries show that for the same week 316 persons took up homesteads.

REPORTS from Nova Scotia show that the industrial activity of the province is well maintained, particularly in connection with coal mining and iron and steel works, which are working full time, though with reduced staffs, owing to the labour shortage due to the war. Work on the Halifax ocean terminals is progressing satisfactorily, and is being carried on night and day. There has been quite a boom in wooden shipbuilding, one firm having sufficient orders in hand to keep them fully employed for the next fifteen months. Reports from the agricultural districts state that the season is somewhat earlier than usual, and that prospects are excellent. It is anticipated that the hay crop will equal, if not excel, the record crop of last year.

MEMBERS of the Ontario Flax Growers' Association have recently made a tour through the flax-growing area in Lambton County, and report very favourably on the development of this important industry. Good crops are expected which will be specially valuable in view of the shortage of linen and the high price obtainable for flax fibre. Flax factories are to be erected at Petrolia and Sarnia this year. To encourage growers further the Canadian Government is taking effective steps for the improvement of the flax industry. These will include the erection of a thoroughly complete experimental mill where all processes for the treatment of flax will be tested. By means of circulars and bulletins information as to the best growing areas, varieties of seed, and a study of the market situation will be given to the flax growers from time to time.

THE new Canadian plant for the International Nickel Company is to be placed at Port Colborne, Ontario. Four hundred acres of land have been purchased for the work, and the plant is to cost from four to five million dollars. Work will be commenced on the new plant at once but it is improbable that it will be ready for operation for at least six months. "I am convinced," says Dr. Reid, Minister of Customs, "that at a comparatively early date a plant large enough to refine all the nickel required under the present conditions by the British Empire will be in operation in Ontario."

SOUTH AFRICA

"SOUTH AFRICA," the Chairman of the National Bank of South Africa tells us, "has its peculiar advantages, and although for some time to come we may not be able to attract a great volume of fresh capital from overseas, with the result that development of many of our industries will be retarded, the country has unquestionably a great future. The adverse conditions likely to be in evidence after the war should be tempered by the fact that our production of minerals is likely at any rate to maintain itself at the present level for many years to come, while our agricultural and several other industries are successfully over the experimental stage. The war has brought South Africa into especial prominence, and our indebtedness to General Botha and General Smuts is great for raising our prestige in the eyes of the world as an integral part of the Empire. We must all be proud of these soldier-statesmen and of those

who, with them, have in this crisis placed their services at the disposal of the Empire."

Referring to monetary conditions in Europe which exercise such a powerful influence in South Africa and upon the Bank's earnings, he said: "In the first stages of 1915 the weight of money in the United Kingdom resulted in abnormally easy rates, the discount market in London for three months bills having been as low as $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in January of that year, falling in February to $1\frac{5}{8}$ per cent. From April the tendency hardened until August, since when the control of the money market has been with the Bank of England. These low rates attracted little foreign capital, hence the higher rates now prevalent. In June and July Great Britain issued its second War Loan at par, bearing interest at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the issue being for an unlimited amount, and over £600,000,000 was raised. Such a rate of interest has naturally had its effect on other high-class securities. An Anglo-French Loan of 500,000,000 dollars (say £100,000,000) was raised in America for the purpose of improving the Exchange between Great Britain and France and that country. Steps have been taken to improve the Exchanges between the various allied and neutral countries, and in this matter bankers are affording assistance. Regarding the Union's finance, the Budget Statement for the ensuing year estimated a deficit of £1,422,000, which it has been necessary to meet by various measures of taxation, the outstanding feature of which is the wider operation of the Income Tax.

"It should be realised by shareholders that our Institution is being subjected to increased taxation, and, although to assist in meeting the needs of the country we cheerfully shoulder the additional burden, there is one matter which, in the interests of the Bank, I must criticise, though in no carping spirit. Union has been an accomplished fact for six years, yet where most taxes are concerned the four provinces continue in some respects to resemble, what I may term, water-tight compartments. It was, for example, understood, when increased duty on the note issue was imposed, that certain relief would be granted in another respect. The Government's hands, I know, have been very full, but unfortunately for us, although it has had no time to remove or adjust the old basis of taxation, it has not failed to see to the introduction of new imposts. The question of double Income Tax has occupied the minds of investors resident in British Dominions other than those in which their investments are made. Such unfair taxation hinders the natural flow of capital, and it is hoped when the war is over this hardship may be removed.

"With the Government's assumption of the administration of South West Africa we have opened branches in that territory, and it is hoped that these will be to the mutual benefit of the community and the Bank. We have also inaugurated our own office in New York, where previously we were represented by agents to whom we are indebted for many services rendered, but the exigencies of our business called for direct representation, which we now have under the management of Mr.

Saunders. It may here be mentioned that we appear to have outgrown the accommodation afforded by our main office in London, and that we hope shortly to have better provision there for our business."

THE Central Council of the South African Stud Book Association has adopted a rule requiring the registration of all imported pure-bred stock in the South African Stud Book. It might almost have been assumed that all stud breeders would have been only too anxious to have their imported stud animals registered in this country, because of the advertisement which such registration actually is, apart altogether from the value of the record as a reference now and in the future. However, in practice this is not the case, especially with tyro breeders. It has thus been impossible to look up all sires or dams in the South African Stud Book, for the reason that some breeders had not registered their imported animals. This system also lends itself to possible fraud, in that a man might say: "This animal is not registered in South Africa, but is recorded in such-and-such a stud book in such-and-such a land"—a statement which it would be quite impossible for the ordinary man to verify. Therefore, we welcome the new rule—a rule which we hope will have the support of all the breed societies, so that the South African Stud Book may become a complete record of all stud animals in South Africa.

THE Department of Agriculture, South Africa, has again arranged for the short courses of instruction in agriculture and kindred subjects, to be given during the forthcoming vacations at the different Agricultural Schools. They have in the past proved popular, and have been much appreciated. Their value is great, and those who find it impossible to attend the full courses are able to gain much valuable information which can be applied to their farming pursuits. The courses are specially designed for those who are engaged in agriculture and for rural school teachers. Women may attend both courses.

THE following progressive figures indicate the growth of trade between Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa, representing as they do the totals of South African produce and manufactures imported into the territory for the past twelve years:—1904, £113,139; 1905, £121,557; 1906, £183,874; 1907, £218,610; 1908, £298,334; 1909, £438,643; 1910, £467,777; 1911, £488,393; 1912, £592,198; 1913, £542,830; 1914, £552,807; 1915, £567,437. While high water mark in respect of the total imports of South African produce was reached in 1912, there is a long list of items, blasting compounds and sugar being conspicuous among them, in regard to which the imports of South African produce and manufactures showed individual increases during 1915, although the quantity or value of similar imports from overseas decreased. In these respects, therefore, the result of the war has been to enhance the value of the Rhodesian market from the standpoint of the Union manufacturer and producer. The Rhodesian consumer has at the same time been saved serious inconvenience by being enabled to draw upon the Union for his supplies, and especially for such commodities as blasting compounds and sugar.

NEW ZEALAND

FROM Campbell Island, situate 200 miles south of the South Island of New Zealand, have enlisted in the New Zealand Reinforcements no less than seven brothers—and these the sole inhabitants of the island! For the past seven years they have controlled a sheep station of 43,000 acres carrying over eight thousand sheep. An offer has been made to the New Zealand Patriotic Association by a resident of Fiji to set up in business the widow of some soldier killed in action.

THE Minister of Defence is considering the best means of caring for the graves of those who lie buried at Gallipoli and round about. The graves of soldiers buried in Egypt are being marked with suitable metal crosses and with brass inscription plates giving number, name and rank. At Lemnos the principal chaplain of the Mediterranean Forces has kept a careful record of all members of the campaign, all his records having been sent to a central enquiry bureau at Alexandria. The New Zealand Records Office in Egypt has been instructed to furnish as early as possible all the particulars recording burials at Lemnos, and the copies of photographs of cemeteries in Malta for distribution to the next-of-kin of members of the Expeditionary Force who were buried there from the Dardanelles. Most of the graves have been marked with wooden crosses and the Turks have been requested to respect them.

IT might seem a far cry from the homely homœopathic remedies of the Maoris to the ailments of a modern battlefield, yet not so. The Maoris claimed, generations ago, that the buds of the koromiko (one of the veronicas), chewed and swallowed, were an effective specific for the cure of dysentery. Remembering this, recently a local citizen of Christchurch collected a number of these buds, packed them in an air-tight screw-top jar, and sent them to a soldier friend at the front. By last mail he received a reply that the buds had arrived in good condition, and had effected a remarkable cure of several men, including the original recipient.

CIRCUMSTANCES which have arisen since the outbreak of the war have brought into prominence the relations between the Admiralty and those authorities controlling the New Zealand coal export, and as one of the consequences the New Zealand Government has decided to terminate the existence of the Westport Harbour Board and to take over the administration of the harbour itself. The revenue of the Westport Harbour Board is solely derived from the income from the State Railway, which runs from the collieries to Westport. The harbour and all the works pertaining to it will therefore in future be under the administration of the Railway Department.

THE returns of the output of butter and cheese from the Taranaki Province, in the North Island, this season will probably approach £2,000,000. Meat, wool, skins and hides will account for another £1,000,000. The Province contains less than 60,000 inhabitants! The amount of capital invested in land, plant and buildings in connection

with the boot industry represents a little more than £109 10s. per head of the workers engaged in the trade.

IN view of the largely increased allowance (25 per cent.) being made by the South Canterbury Hospital and Charitable Aid Board to the recipients of charitable aid, it is interesting to see from tables recently published how the war has increased the prices of foodstuffs in the Dominion, which is the least affected of all the overseas countries in this important direction. In Wellington, the capital city, the increases as compared with July, 1914, are 16·71 per cent., the main items as follows: Groceries, 19·94 per cent.; dairy produce, 13·16 per cent.; meat, 15·60 per cent.

THE Minister of Railways is giving favourable consideration to a suggestion that the railway locomotives in the Dominion should each be given a patriotic name to perpetuate some of the great events of the war.

IN the gazetted list of New Zealand clergymen licensed to officiate at marriages appear the names of ten Maori members of the Ringatu Church. The Ringatu form of worship is practically the Hauhau form of religion, of which the High Priest at one time was Te Kooti, and later the wily Urewera recalcitrant, Rua, who was recently captured. The scheme of worship is a continuous uplifting of the hands, and the rapid chanting of a mixture of Old and New Testament phrases interlarded with native ideas regarding the Deity. The ten men who represent the Church have now the right to claim the prefix of Reverend to their names, and their right to that honour has already been accepted by the Government Printer.

IN co-operation with the Agricultural Department of New Zealand an interesting innovation is to be introduced into the Wellington Technical School. This is the establishment of a course suitable for produce managers and others who had to deal with seeds, manures, etc., and often had to advise farmers in such matters.

PROFESSOR PATRICK MARSHALL, Principal of the Mining School of Otago University, recently made an interesting *résumé* on the mineral resources of the Province of Otago, which in the past has alone yielded some £30,000,000 worth of gold from its rivers and mines. Large amounts are still to be raised, and at less cost, he prophesies, while there are tremendously valuable deposits of cement, which will last at the present rate for 200 years. Of sheelite, so widely used in the present crisis for making high-speed tools, there are large deposits; copper also. Of that very valuable metal, nickel, which is found in a peculiar ore named iron of nickel, there is a considerable amount; mercury; hematite; limestone; phosphate rock; building stone and antimony.

THE Bank of New Zealand has a hundred and fifty lady clerks at work in its various branches in the Dominion, and is trying the skill of women in several positions that were once considered the exclusive domain of men.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

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COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY AFTER THE WAR

JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMPETITION

IN the recent discussions which have taken place as to the reorganisation of commercial and industrial life after the war little or no attention has been paid to the millions of Asiatics who are watching this war with keen interest. That "the industrial war which is expected to follow this war is likely to be much bigger and a more arduous struggle than is yet foreseen" is almost certain. And in this struggle for supremacy the natives of China, India and Japan will play a more prominent part than they have done in the past. India being part of the British Empire may be left out of the question of being one of the competitors, and in this short article I propose dealing only with Japan and China with which I am more familiar.

The question here arises as to whether, judging from the progress made during the past half-century by both Japan and China in commercial and industrial matters, they are likely to become formidable competitors and rivals for supremacy in the trade of Europe and America. In order to answer this question it will be necessary to give in the briefest possible manner some account of the development and progress by both nations for the past fifty years, show some of the advantages they possess which will enable them to compete successfully with Occidentals, and forecast from what has happened in the past what will probably be the future of both countries commercially, industrially, and politically.

First, then, let us glance briefly at some of the achievements of the Japanese since 1868 when their country adopted Western ideas after some 250 years of isolation and seclusion. Among the first measures of domestic reform after reopening their country to foreigners and Western civilisation was the improvement of their means of communication. The construction of railways began in 1869, and the line between Yokohama and Tokio, the capital, a distance of eighteen miles, was opened in 1872. On my first visit to Japan in 1876 there were two short lines of railway, the one referred to above and the other between Kobe and Kioto, the ancient capital. In 1906 the total mileage of railways was 4,839 with capital invested of £48,110,072. In 1907 most of the railways were nationalised, so that the Government lines amounted then to 4,453 miles in addition to those privately owned. In March of this year the Government lines totalled 5,758, while those privately owned brought the total up to 7,300 miles—not a bad record for railway building when we remember the difficulties in a country like Japan.

In addition to the steam railways, electric trains run through the industrial districts linking up the great commercial centres with the political and manufacturing cities of the Empire. Electric tramways are now extensively used, running in and between most of the important cities, paying in nearly every case good dividends to the shareholders.

Following railways came telegraphs, which were also introduced in 1869, the first line being between Yokohama and Tokio. Now, there are over 24,000 miles of telegraph lines with a system of wireless extending to Honolulu. A Post Office according to Western ideas was inaugurated in 1871, Post Office Savings Banks established 1875, and Japan entered the Universal Postal Union in 1877. In 1890 telephones were set up by the Government and are now in use all over the country.

The Japanese purchased in 1876 a number of steamers from the Pacific Mail Co. to run between Shanghai and Yokohama, and for a short time competed with the P. & O. S.S. Co. which were running steamers on that route. The keen competition then in vogue and the cutting down of passenger rates enabled persons (as I did myself in 1876) to travel first class from Shanghai to Yokohama for £2, whereas now it costs £8. Japan has to-day a mercantile marine of steam and sailing vessels representing over 2,400,000 tons, of which at least 40 per cent. have been built in Japan. There are at present being constructed some 200,000 tons of shipping which it is expected will be ready this year, while that amount of tonnage will be considerably increased during next year, the shipyards in Japan having more work than they can do while new yards are being started. Three of their largest shipping lines are subsidised by the Govern-

ment, and all of these are increasing their capital with a view of further development.

In connection with the means of communication that ubiquitous and useful vehicle known as the Jinriksha (or as it has been wittily called a "Pull-man-car") ought not to be omitted. There is some doubt as to who the inventor was, some claiming that he was a Japanese while others that he was an American. But whoever he was he has proved a benefactor, not only to the Japanese and the foreigners either living in or visiting Japan, but to millions of others. The jinriksha is now extensively used in Ceylon, Straits Settlements, and many of the cities and Treaty Ports of China. A man owning one of these vehicles can earn as much as £3 a month in the large cities of Japan such as Tokio or Kioto.

The wars with China and Russia in which the Japanese engaged were not entered on solely for the purpose of obtaining military glory and prestige, but were means to attaining equality with the Western Powers in the commercial, industrial and political world. The educated Japanese are not over-pleased at the praises lavished on them for their military and naval prowess alone. "On what grounds," asks Baron Shibusawa in 'Japan by the Japanese,' "did I meet with so warm a reception at the hands of prominent men of the world? The President of the United States praised Japan because of her military prowess and fine arts. Are not Germany, France and England praising Japan up to the skies on the same grounds? If the warm reception I received abroad is based on the feeling that I came from a country known for its military exploits, I must confess that the reception is a death-blow to our hopes."

What these hopes were have been obvious to all careful students of the remarkable development of the Japanese nation, commercially, industrially and politically during the past half century. On my first visit to Japan in 1876 I was privileged to meet some of the advanced men, among whom was the lamented Viscount Mori, who, when Minister of Education in 1889, was cruelly assassinated by a Shinto fanatic. From these men I learnt what some of their aims and ambitions were, most of which have been more than realised, and much sooner than they expected then. These were that Japan should become not only self-productive and self-sustaining, but should also advance intellectually and commercially along those lines which would place their country on an equality with the Great Powers of the West, and be most conducive in promoting the prosperity and welfare of the people.

It is admitted on all sides that their success commercially has been astonishing since 1868, at which time they neither imported nor exported anything. At the time of the Revolution, which resulted in such drastic changes in the life and habits of

the people, commerce was looked upon with haughty disdain, the career of the politician and the soldier being held in great esteem. The nation up to that time was divided into four classes: (1) administrative, military and literary; (2) agriculture; (3) craftsmen; and (4) traders. The last named were despised and were accounted the lowest class of citizens. Since then, however, members of the aristocracy and highly-educated have joined the ranks of those engaged in commerce, finance and trade, engaging in banking, insurance, ship-owning, ship-building, the management of railways, and mining. Many of the old families have had their sons educated and specially trained so that they might be qualified to undertake the supervision of manufactures and wholesale import and export business.

In industry they have made gigantic strides, for in 1876 Osaka had hardly a single factory; but on my last visit in 1911 there were over 5,000 mills and workshops of all kinds there, it being called the Manchester of the Far East. One of the striking features of their industrial development is their ability, adaptability, and power of imitation, in which they somewhat resemble the Germans. They have in recent years imported machinery from America and Europe, using it as patterns to be either copied or improved upon by their own workmen. Out of twenty-five cotton-mills in Osaka, the machinery for one had been imported from America, the others having been made from the pattern of the imported one. There were also a few years ago thirty flour-mills ready for shipment to the wheat regions of Manchuria. One of these mills had come from America, while the other twenty-nine had been constructed in Osaka at a cost of one-fifth of the amount paid for the imported one.

The remarkable progress made by the Japanese shows how keen will be the competition in commerce and industry after the war, and even now before the war is over they are making serious efforts to capture the trade formerly done in Russia by the Germans, and the recent Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia will be of an immense advantage in this direction. It is no wonder that the Germans have been alarmed at the tremendous advance made by the Japanese in all departments of trade, or that the Kaiser should have tried to raise the bogey of the "Yellow Peril," as he did by the famous picture drawn from a design of his which was intended to frighten Europe in 1895 after the defeat of China by Japan. Those who have either lived or travelled in the Far East have heard constant criticisms and denunciations of the Japanese by Germans. In 1908 Lord Ronaldshay wrote:—

I found German merchants in China highly indignant at the arrival of a new and successful competitor at their own particular game—the production of that heterogeneous collection of goods euphemistically known as "fancy

articles," cheap and nasty, and usually inferior copies of superior goods: clocks, lamps, ornaments, glassware, crockery, enamel toilet accessories and a hundred more.

As manufacturers they have many advantages owing to the cheapness of labour, the large number of women and girls employed who form 60 per cent. of the operatives in the mills, while in Europe they form only 30 per cent. to 40 per cent. according to local conditions, and until quite recently they had no Factory Acts in Japan such as we have in England. Then nearly every branch of industry is subsidised and supported by the State which takes a paternal interest in all commercial enterprises, they being important factors in the plan for attaining to the position of equality with Western nations, everything contributing to that object. Industry, commerce, and even the making of treaties such as that with China last year are all means for the fulfilment of the national purpose which the statesmen of Japan keep ever in view. It is said the object of the Treaty with China in 1915 was three-fold: first to strengthen her own economic position by obtaining outlet for her capital, shielded by a monopoly, and by obtaining new markets within easy reach of her shores; secondly, to gain political power in China through the power of the purse; and thirdly, to increase thereby her prestige among the nations of the world.

It is not, therefore, surprising that with the advantages Japan possesses such as cheap labour, plenty of coal, an abundant water supply, subsidised railways and shipping, the merchants of that country are in a favourable position for carrying on the fierce struggle for the supremacy, of not only the Far Eastern trade, but that also of America and Europe. The foreign trade of Japan owing to the conditions mentioned above increased from £10,000,000 in 1887 to £95,000,000 in 1897, and last year the balance of exports over imports amounted to £17,500,000, which was no doubt owing to the war in Europe. During recent years there have been many additions to their fleet of cargo-steamers, a number of which are not subsidised by the Government; but in spite of that some of these shipping companies have been earning as much as 630 per cent. The three largest shipping lines which are subsidised by the Government have been and are making elaborate preparations to extend the services, and built several cargo-boats of 7,500 tons gross which have been placed on the round-the-world route via Panama.

Shipbuilding and ship-owning have become the most important and best paying enterprises in Japan, and owing to the difficulty of having new vessels built in England on account of the war, the demand for increased tonnage has to be met by their building all the steamers they require themselves. And when one

remembers that they can be built in Japan for a pound sterling a ton less than in England, even if the steel plates were imported, there is not much likelihood of many more steamers being ordered from abroad.

What the Japanese have already achieved, plus the advantages which they possess, gives some slight indication of what it is possible for them to accomplish in the future. There is not the least doubt but that Japan will one day become a great commercial nation in the Pacific, and there will be a tremendous increase in her trade with Canada and the United States. That she will have the monopoly of the Chinese trade is almost certain, her commercial and political influence being greater there every year, thus fulfilling the national aims and ambitions to become one of the great powers of the world. Judging from the strides Japan has made during the past half century in all the elements of what is termed the higher forms of Western civilisation, her continued development and progress commercially, industrially and politically will be in the interests of peace and the welfare of humanity.

If Japan is likely to play such an important part in the struggle for commercial supremacy after the present war is over, what shall be said of China? As one keen and observant traveller has said: "There are in China potentialities before which the possibilities of Japan pale into insignificance." While the progress of China in commerce and industry on Western lines may not have been quite so apparent and rapid as that of Japan, it has been much greater than is generally known or supposed. The immense territory of China and her dependencies which measure some 4,300,000 square miles; the vast population estimated at over 400,000,000; the number of different races which make up the Chinese nation; the various dialects spoken by the peoples on the coast; the difficulties of communication between the capital and the provinces; the innate conservatism and prejudice of the literati, and the system of extortion and rapacity of the majority of the Mandarins under the old régime, have retarded commercial and industrial expansion. Yet notwithstanding these and other drawbacks which I have no space to enumerate here, China has made great advances in all branches of trade whether domestic or foreign during the past fifty years.

Let me then, as in the case of Japan, relate some of the improvements the Chinese have made in their means of communication, note the development in a few of their industrial enterprises, and conclude by giving some idea of the probable future of China commercially, industrially and politically. Having had the pleasure of travelling on the first line of railway in 1876 between Shanghai and Woosung, a distance of twelve miles,

a line afterwards purchased by the Chinese Government, torn up and sent to Formosa in 1877, I am in a position to appreciate the progress made in railway building in China.

It was not until 1887 that an Imperial Decree was issued sanctioning the building of the Kaiping Tramway to be drawn by horses, which proved the precursor of the northern railways of China, 250 miles of which was completed in 1894. Then followed the Peking-Hankow, Peking-Kalgan, Shanghai-Nanking, Tientsin-Pukow, Kirin-Changchun and other lines, so that now there are over 5,000 miles of railway in working order, while some 7,000 miles more are either under construction or projected. It is estimated that within the next twenty-five years from 10,000 to 15,000 miles of railway will be built in China in order to develop the country.

As railways were introduced by foreigners so were telegraphs, the first line being in connection with the Shanghai-Woosung railway which was taken over by the Chinese Government. In 1879 the Throne sanctioned the erection of the telegraph line between Taku and Tientsin, and in 1880 a land line between Shanghai and Tientsin, a distance of 1,025 miles, was commenced which was completed at the end of 1881. In 1908 the Telegraphic Administration was taken over by the Government, since when there has been a rapid development all over the country. There are now over 40,000 miles of land lines, direct telegraphic communication with America and Europe, and many wireless stations installed in different parts of the Empire all worked by the Chinese themselves.

Then as to the other means of communication, namely, the Post Office with which I was connected from the beginning until 1915 has grown by leaps and bounds. Although there was a Government Service of couriers for the transmission of official documents which dates back over 3,000 years, and private postal organisations conducted by the people as commercial enterprises, it was not until the 20th March, 1896, that an Imperial Decree was issued inaugurating the National Post Office, the management of which was placed in the hands of the late Sir Robert Hart, Inspector-General of the Maritime Customs. It is not my intention to give anything like a detailed history of the Chinese Postal Service, nor to relate the difficulties, prejudices and opposition which had to be overcome in the organisation of such an institution in China; but the figures and particulars given below will afford some slight indication of the remarkable progress made in such a short space of time.

In 1914 there were 8,323 offices and agencies, 1,323 rural box-offices, and 8,145 pillar and letter-boxes. These offices were connected by 136,000 miles of courier lines, 6,333 miles of railway lines, and 19,667 miles of steamer and boat lines, making a total

of 162,000 miles of communications. During the year 1914 the Chinese Post Office handled 692,189,200 articles, of which 57,265,000 were registered, and 5,236,533 express delivery letters. Domestic money orders issued valued Mexican dollars 11,986,800, while the value of those cashed amounted to Mexican dollars 12,210,600. No less than 7,363,878 parcels were received for transmission and delivery, of which number 341,010 were insured for Mexican dollars 18,208,300.

The total postal staff in 1914 numbered 24,358, of whom only 130 are foreigners whose work is mostly administrative. The aim and object of the founder, Sir Robert Hart, who had the idea of introducing into China a national post office on Western lines as early as 1861, was to create, organise and develop a postal service which would eventually be administered and manned entirely by Chinese. Owing to the system of competitive examinations which was one of the best institutions of China, we had no difficulty in recruiting a superior class of men, most of whom have become efficient in all branches of postal work. Not a few of these men have already qualified to be heads of departments, and others will doubtless take a prominent part in directing what is destined to be one of the most important and successful departments of the State.

The Chinese have not invested their capital in foreign shipping to the same extent as the Japanese, and, therefore, there are few large steamship companies. The largest is that known as the China Merchants' Steamship Company, its head office being at Shanghai. This Company was formed in 1871 by H.E. Li Hung-chang when he was Viceroy of Chihli, and has always been more or less under government control. In 1877 a number of steamers were purchased from Messrs. Russell and Company, an American firm, with wharves situated in the French Concession, Shanghai, and since then the fleet has been considerably enlarged. These steamers run on the coast and the Yangtze as well as to the Straits Settlements and India. The Chinese have extensive interests in the Kailan Mining and Engineering Company, which also owns a large fleet of steamers running principally between Shanghai, Tientsin and Chinwangtao. Many small steamers are owned by Chinese both in China and the Straits Settlements; but up to the present there are no trans-oceanic companies although such have been often contemplated.

Along with steamers the native boats and junks—which probably exceed the number in all the rest of the world—continue to traverse the excellent and unsurpassed waterways of China, and will doubtless keep on doing so for many centuries yet. And this in spite of the difficulties and dangers of navigation on such rivers as the Yangtze, Hwangho and the Han owing to the freshets and rapids. It has been estimated that

in a thousand years more people have been drowned in the Hwangho, or "China's Sorrow," than have been killed in all the wars of the world during the same period. The loss of life on both the Yangtze and Han rivers is also enormous, and there is no doubt that the advent of railways and steamers will reduce it considerably.

It would require a volume to deal with the commercial life of the Chinese. Their trade and foreign commerce can be traced to the time of Yao and Shun (B.C. 2255), and the 'Tribute of Yu,' written B.C. 2200, is said to be the oldest book on commercial enterprise in the world. The Arabs were probably the first foreign traders to visit China, travelling thence by sea in the twelfth century, though long before that Chinese silk seems to have reached the West by land transport over the mountains and deserts of Central Asia. As the Arabians report that Chinese junks sailed as far as Calcutta, the silk may have reached the West through India. We learn from the reports of the Arabians that the Chinese sent missions to neighbouring countries with the object of opening up mutual commercial intercourse, which shows that even at that time they appreciated and were keen on doing business with other nations. After the Arabs the Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, British, Russians, French and Americans visited China for the purpose of establishing commercial relations with the Chinese.

The history of foreign commercial intercourse with the Chinese, with all its difficulties, jealousies, obstructions, misunderstandings and prejudices, to say nothing of the official "squeezes," is too well known to need recapitulation here. But in order to show the progress made in the shipping of the different countries, a comparative table taken from 'The Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire,' by Mr. H. B. Morse, is given below :—

Country.	1864.	1874.	1884.	1894.	1903.	1905.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British . .	2,862,214	4,738,793	12,152,949	20,496,347	28,122,987	35,095,658
American . .	2,609,390	1,184,360	2,140,741	129,127	559,686	1,293,416
French . .	93,099	137,253	93,963	348,291	1,178,200	1,699,121
German . .	580,570	580,377	939,765	1,983,605	7,310,427	8,187,871
Japanese . .	756	480	215,105	379,044	7,965,358	6,238,918
Norwegian . .	38,195	22,507	10,455	288,051	1,136,056	2,922,826
Other . .						
Foreign . .	396,673	197,784	460,197	458,290	1,106,466	2,910,385
Chinese* . .	64,588	494,237	2,993,613	5,539,246	9,911,209	16,407,352
Total . .	6,635,485	9,305,801	18,806,788	29,622,001	57,290,889	72,755,547

* Steamers and sailing vessels engaging in trade under the regulations of the Inspectorate General of Customs.

As an indication of the development of the foreign trade with China, the imports which in 1867 were valued at £23,109,914

had increased to £67,065,119 in 1905, and reached the sum of £86,118,303 in 1913. The goods exported in 1867 were valued at £19,298,571, and had increased in 1905 to £34,183,230, while the exports last year exceeded those of any previous year.

What the Chinese have done and are doing to increase their export trade can only be briefly referred to. The demand for Chinese tea, which a little over half a century ago was used exclusively in the United Kingdom, has considerably fallen off since Indian and Ceylon teas came into the market. In order to stop the further decline in the export from China steps are being taken to improve both the culture and packing of teas intended for the foreign markets, and with this object in view the export duty has been reduced. Measures are also being taken to stop dishonest practices in connection with the tea trade. The silk and silkworm industry, of which the Chinese were the founders, is also receiving attention with a view of improving the quality and thereby increasing the export, as this forms one of the principal and most valuable branches of the export trade.

Everything possible is being done by the Government to assist, encourage and stimulate trade of all kinds. A Commission was appointed by the late President, Yuan Shi-k'ai, last October for obtaining information as to the resources and industries in the different provinces in order to find out where the assistance and encouragement is most required. A Bureau of Research has been opened by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce with the object of investigating the condition of the world's trade. Rules and regulations have been drawn up for the guidance of chambers of commerce, joint stock companies and stock exchanges. The latter have been established at most of the principal cities and Treaty Ports, and it is expected that the result will be the freer circulation of capital which will give a fillip to trade.

Industrially the Chinese have been making great progress during recent years. Cotton mills have been built at many of the most important centres, such as Shanghai, Tungchow, Soochow, Hangchow, Tientsin and Wuchang. The output from these mills already reaches nearly 700,000 bales a year, and is affecting the export to China of certain cotton goods from Manchester as the following table will show:—

Cotton Goods.	1885-1894.	1895-1904.	1905-1914.
Grey shirtings	54,138,064	45,811,032	33,887,974
Tea-cloths	15,348,300	7,653,822	5,387,447
Bleached goods	17,621,139	18,894,193	27,099,840
Drills and sheetings	9,364,394	8,364,500	2,925,526
Jeans	1,373,006	1,531,896	8,095,960
Total	97,944,903	82,255,453	77,396,747

Then the Chinese are carrying on successfully, either by themselves or in conjunction and partnership with foreigners, such industries as engineering, shipbuilding, docks, coal and iron mining, flour and oil mills, iron and steel rolling mills, cement works, silk filatures, printing works, furniture manufactories, distilleries, match and soap factories, and many other branches which half a century ago were entirely in the hands of foreigners.

As to the advantages the Chinese possess for competing for the commercial supremacy, they are too numerous to mention in a short article like this. First, there is a consensus of opinion that they are traders *par excellence*, and have been so from remote ages. The Chinese merchants as a rule are shrewd, hard-headed business men, to whom the accumulation of wealth is as the breath of life, having among them a high standard of commercial morality. The Chinese workman is industrious, thrifty and temperate, and can adapt himself to all circumstances. Owing to the vast population and the struggle for existence labour is both cheap and plentiful. Although the cost of labour has risen in China, as in other countries, during the past twenty years, it is still low when compared with what is paid for the same kind in either Europe or America. Ordinary labourers receive from 12s. to 18s. a month, while the wages of skilled labourers and mechanics rarely exceed from £2 to £3 a month. In the Hanyang steel works, which was started by the Viceroy Chang-Chih-tung and where some 5,000 men are employed, ordinary labourers receive 12s. a month. Women reelers in the silk filatures in Shanghai earn less than 1s. a day for eleven hours' work. Generally speaking labourers in the interior are paid 6d. to 9d. a day, for which they work from ten to twelve hours.

Many farm labourers, however, only receive 25s. to 30s. a year and their board and lodging, the food for each man costing on an average about 25s. a year. Agricultural labourers in China are what might be called the handymen, for when the crops are in and they have spare time they become chair-bearers, boatmen, fishermen, jinriksha pullers, wheel-barrow pushers, cargo-coolies and stevedores. As a rule they are of great physical power and endurance, often accomplishing what would be considered the work of half-a-dozen European labourers. As one who made a special study of the Chinese labourer, both in China and South Africa, said: "He will suffer hardship from his cradle to his grave that would kill a European in five minutes. His stock of conversation is not large; he can only talk about his coppers or his food, but he is far from being unintelligent, and when initiated into the mysteries of machinery or mining work—even of a technical nature—he will pick it up with a quickness which

is little short of marvellous. It is marvellous when you remember that this man is an agriculturist by birth, by habit and profession."

Then, again, another of the advantages is the vast resources of China which at present are nearly all lying dormant and hardly touched. Of the twenty-seven different kinds of minerals found in various parts of China, coal and iron probably rank first in importance as they do in other countries. In the southern part of Shansi there is enough coal to supply the world for several thousand years, while in another province (Hupeh) stands a mountain of iron ore three miles long and four hundred feet high, capable of supplying 700 tons a day for a thousand years.

It is true that some attempts are being made to develop and utilise the mineral wealth of China, as the figures given below will show. In 1914 the output of coal was 6,315,735 tons; iron ore, 468,538 tons; tin, 689,789 tons; antimony, 28,316 tons; lead, 13,527 tons; copper, 10,963 tons; and gold, 71,582 oz. The aggregate annual output of petroleum, sulphur, quicksilver, lime, orpiment, asbestos, etc., is about 317,022 tons. Even now China is producing more minerals than she requires, and therefore, when the country is more fully opened up, the means of communication improved and the facilities for transportation increased, there is every possibility of a much greater output of minerals, and an expansion of the export trade in such articles.

As to what the future of China will be commercially, industrially and politically, it is not easy to say, and, paradoxical as it may seem, the more one knows of China the more difficult it is to dogmatise about it. Sir Robert Hart, who was perhaps one of the greatest authorities on China, felt the same difficulty. Some years ago he said to Marquis Ito: "China is indeed a difficult country. A year or two ago I thought I knew something of her affairs, and I ventured to commit my views to writing. But to-day I have lost all knowledge. If you asked me to write three or four pages about China I should be puzzled to do so."

Judging from the past fifty years, however, it is quite certain that as traders and manufacturers the Chinese will become serious competitors for commercial supremacy after the war. Preparations are being made in the interior and at the Treaty Ports in all departments of Chinese mercantile and industrial life for prosecuting a forward policy with the view of increasing their trade. When once there is a settled form of Government, and the projected reforms for an honest and purer Civil Service are carried out, the anticipations of Sun Yat-Sen in 1911, soon after the Revolution, that the foreign trade would increase by 100 per cent. are likely to be realised.

When we consider an awakened, renovated and scientifically

progressive China with its population of 400,000,000 thoroughly aroused; its vast territory nearly half as large again as the United States; its fertile soil which with some improvements could support double the present population; its magnificent river and canal traffic; its inexhaustible mineral wealth, and an extended railway system all over the country, it is not surprising that a great future commercially and industrially is predicted for China.

Whether China remains Republican or evolves in the course of time a Constitutional Monarchical form of Government as some think she will, need not be discussed here. There are indications that she will follow the example of Japan, and make everything subservient to becoming a world power by building up a large army and navy for defensive and if necessary offensive purposes. Before that day, however, arrives she will have many economic and social questions to settle, and domestic, international and labour problems to solve. During the next quarter of a century we shall doubtless witness in China some remarkable experiments in State socialism, as already there are efforts being made to nationalise railways, mines, etc.

It will be seen from the above brief review of the progress made by both the Japanese and Chinese commercially and industrially, and the advantages they possess, that they are well equipped for carrying on the struggle for commercial and industrial supremacy after the present war is over. There is no space to deal with either the immense possibilities of development or the methods adopted for the expansion of trade by both nations. The object has been merely to indicate the importance of paying more attention to the aims and ambitions of both Japan and China, and to show from their past achievements their capabilities and resources for successfully competing in the commercial and industrial struggle which is expected to take place at no distant date.

The late Yuan Shi-k'ai, although the founder of the modern army of China, was far-seeing enough to assist, encourage and promote the establishing of mills, working of mines and building of railways, which were even more important than the creation of the army. What Japan has already done in competing successfully with foreign countries in matters of trade and shipping the Chinese believe that with their greater country, population and resources, they are even more capable of doing, and are making preparations to follow the example of Japan.

Whatever the economic and political future of China will be it is quite evident from the manner the Chinese have grappled with, eradicated, and suppressed the gigantic evil of opium smoking, that there are no limits to their power of dealing effectively with and carrying out other reforms no matter how

complicated and formidable they may be. It has been truly said "the problem of China is to a large extent the problem of the world," and, that being so, it is hoped that when discussing the reorganisation of trade after the war due attention will be paid to the two Asiatic nations which are destined to play a far more prominent part in the struggle for commercial and industrial supremacy than they have hitherto done.

J. P. DONOVAN

(Late Postal Commissioner, Chinese Postal Service).

KITCHENER

THIS is a fitting end: the water-ways
Will keep a silence deep as was his own
Whose country saw not neither heard the tone
Of one who gave her all his mighty days.
No more the giant-form, the noble gaze,
The Conqueror who could ignore renown—
Be nothing save a sternly-silent frown
For loud and little men and frothy phrase.

His words are writ across the burning sand
And in the tramp of dusty infantry—
Magic millions born of master-hand:
His name for us and ages yet to be
A Pattern and a nation's boast will stand—
And something of a mighty mystery.

R. F.

THE COMING IMPERIAL CONSTITUTION

PLEA FOR A NOMINATED CONVENTION

"Philip desires not to subjugate your city, but to destroy it utterly. He is convinced you will not submit to be slaves; if you were inclined you would not know how, having been accustomed to command: you will be able, should occasion offer, to give him more trouble than any (other) people in the world. For this reason he will show us no mercy if he get us into his power; and therefore you must make up your minds that the struggle will be one for life and death." (*Demosthenes, 4th Philippic.*)

"It has been well said that in every man's life there is one supreme hour towards which all earlier experience moves, and from which all future results may be reckoned. For every individual Briton, as well as for our national existence, that solemn hour is now striking. Let us take heed to the great opportunity it offers, and which most assuredly we must grasp now and at once—or never. Let us, each man of us, see that we spare nothing, shirk nothing, shrink from nothing, if only we may lend our full weight to the impetus which shall carry into victory the cause of our honour and our freedom." (*Lord Kitchener, Guildhall, July 1915.*)

THE first of these two eloquent and impressive admonitions was addressed by the greatest orator of antiquity to his degenerate fellow-citizens on the eve of the final tragedy of Greece. The second may be regarded as the last exhortation to his countrymen of the great Englishman to whose tireless efforts and self-devotion Great Britain mainly owes the army that is now bearing her standards to victory. Substitute the terms "Kaiser" for "Philip," and "empire" for "city," and the words of Demosthenes might be repeated to a British audience to-day.

The people of Great and Greater Britain are engaged in a struggle "for life and death." This truly is their "supreme hour." When it has passed, among other momentous issues, the question will have been decided for generations to come whether the loose federation of self-governing communities popularly, but so far incorrectly, called the British Empire is to become a real Imperial entity, or to be finally dissolved.

Athens on the eve of the battle of Chaeronea was faced by a similar crisis; and when her Hoplites and the Sacred Band of

her Theban allies broke before the charge of the Macedonian phalanx, all hopes of an Athenian Empire, dominant over Greece and the countries bordering on the eastern Mediterranean, vanished for ever. Corrupted by sloth and self-indulgence, and plagued with political institutions of the kind most productive of internal faction in times of peace and weakness in times of war, the people of Athens proved hopelessly incapable of contending against a military power guided by a single resolute will. They had a plenitude of advisers, but no leader. Their energies, accustomed to display themselves in futile political contests, could not be concentrated on the manly task of defending their country from the attack of its deadly enemy.

In vain did the one orator of the time, who combined the qualities of patriotism and statesmanship with those of matchless eloquence, rebuke the levity, lack of foresight, and ignorance of the most elementary principles of strategy shown by the men to whom was entrusted the care of the national safety. Some of his words might have been addressed to a British audience on the eve of the present war. "By arms," he declared, "must your enemies be vanquished, by arms the safety of the constitution must be maintained. Voting," he added scornfully, "will not make your soldiers victorious." And perhaps the originators of the Gallipoli and Baghdad enterprises might take to heart the reproach conveyed in the indignant words: "Nothing, O men of Athens, have you ever set on foot or contrived rightly in the beginning. You always follow the event, stop when you are too late, on any new occurrence, prepare and bustle again. . . . Others deliberate usually before action, you deliberate after action."

Athens fell when matched against an enemy similar on a small scale in both political and military equipment to the chief foe against whom Great Britain and her Allies are now contending. Happily for Great Britain, however, unlike Athens, she was not exposed to invasion by land on the outbreak of war, otherwise she might have fared ill. In the hour of deadly peril, too, her people proved greater than their rulers. Party politicians were commanded to lay aside their small differences and to unite for the common good. In spite of the want of real political leadership, in spite of the fact that power still remained in the hands of men who, as a recent writer has well put it, were "resolute in speech but irresolute in action," the spirit of the people rose to the need of the hour, and insisted that at least the most vitally necessary task, that of raising an army, should be entrusted to capable hands.

The debt Great Britain owes to the late Lord Kitchener can hardly be over-estimated. Although the guardian Goddess of

the Parthenon slumbered while the children of her cherished city wasted the last golden hours of freedom in idle bickerings and debate, again, as on so many previous occasions, Fortune provided for Great Britain at the crisis of her fate the man suited to her need. She did not at the moment require a Drake or a Nelson, a Chatham or a Wellington—she needed pre-eminently a maker of armies. Without an adequate number of trained and well-equipped men the highest military genius could have availed little. Neither could the most consummate statesmanship or seamanship have withstood the march of vast hosts across the plains of Northern France. An army had to be made with the greatest possible speed behind the protection of the naval shield, and effective help given to a brave ally threatened with destruction. How splendidly and with what wonderful rapidity the task was achieved need not be recounted. Five millions of armed men constitute the late Field-Marshal's living monument. His requiem is the tramp of conquering legions. The story of the coming triumph will be his epitaph.

The great British army-maker, happily for the Empire, completed his work ere night fell. And the armies we owe mainly to his genius for organisation and indefatigable industry are now nobly fulfilling their allotted task. That sun of victory, whose rays were welcomed by Cromwell at Dunbar and Napoleon at Austerlitz, is already rising behind the breaking German lines from Verdun to the English Channel. Although, no doubt, stern and trying work has yet to be done, and, it is to be feared, many more gallant lives will have been sacrificed to the Eumenides ere the last struggles of a desperate foe have been overcome, it is at least permissible to hope that within the next twelve months the task of the soldier will have been accomplished. Then that of the statesman will begin, and on its successful execution will probably depend the peace of the world during the remainder of the present century.

Of the enormously difficult and complex problems with which the assembled statesmen of Europe will have to grapple at the coming peace congress nothing need now be said. But apart from its share in the general settlement of European affairs, and the apportionment of conquered territory in Africa and elsewhere, each of the victorious belligerents will have its own domestic difficulties to face. Industrial and financial questions of extreme importance will urgently demand attention. Millions of swords cannot be beaten into ploughshares at a moment's notice; hundreds of munition factories cannot at once be re-transformed into establishments suited for the manufacture of useful articles; nor can a people exhausted by heavy taxation at once supply the funds for repairing the vast amount of waste entailed by the

operations of war. The oscillations following the shock of so terrible a struggle as that which still convulses the world must be felt for many years after its cessation, and settled conditions can only be gradually restored. Leadership of high capacity will be required in the field of statesmanship when at length the sword is sheathed. The coming international pacification must be one destined to last. We do not want another Treaty of Amiens. A half peace were worse than no peace at all. Assuming this indispensable condition to be satisfied, let us consider briefly the main task that will confront Great Britain and her kindred States when hostilities have finally terminated, one of peculiar difficulty and of overwhelming importance. That task will be the consummation of a lasting union, the terms of which will be definitely expressed in an Imperial Constitution.

It is a little trying sometimes to Britons oversea to notice the rather hesitating and timid attitude adopted by the majority of English writers and speakers when they refer to this great subject. Prominent politicians appear to ignore it altogether, or dismiss it with a few vague generalities. Yet, as the senior partner in the British firm, it is certainly the duty of Great Britain to give the lead. Political union can only be accomplished by political action; and the greater the work to be achieved, the greater the necessity for careful deliberation beforehand. The need for military leadership will be immediately succeeded by the need for political leadership, to crown the work done by the armies of the Empire and its Allies. So far, unfortunately, there is no sign that such leadership will be forthcoming. Persuasion continues to be the party politician's instrument. Gibbon, however, tells us with great truth that persuasion is the resource of the weak, and the weak can never persuade. True leadership disdains such feeble methods, and gains its ends by force of character and conviction. For such leadership the people of all British communities now wait. They want a Kitchener of peace to complete the work of a Kitchener of war.

It seems to be generally taken for granted that the postponed Imperial Conference will almost immediately follow the conclusion of hostilities, and this body, presumably, is expected to formulate some scheme for the strengthening of the political and commercial ties between Great Britain and the outlying provinces of the Empire. This course is open to several objections, the strongest, perhaps, being that, in such circumstances, the nominal representatives of several of the most important Dominions would only represent parties and not peoples. Possibly an exception might be made in the case of General Botha as South Africa's spokesman, but certainly in that of the Commonwealth of Australia, owing to the pernicious restraints imposed on every

Labour Government by the Caucus and the party pledge, it would be impossible for any member of the present Ministry to represent fairly the opinions held by at least one half of the inhabitants of Australia, and that the half which embraces almost all the most cultured and stable elements in the country's population. I have a high respect for Mr. Hughes' abilities, and believe that, if entirely freed from the influence of the Labour Caucus and outside political organisations, he would make an excellent representative of the Commonwealth. But Mr. Hughes, unfortunately, as an *ex officio* member of an Imperial Conference—there can be no disguising the unpleasant fact—would be subject to party discipline of a very objectionable kind.

The difficulty just indicated, and others of considerable weight that need not now be mentioned, might, it would seem, be overcome by the substitution for an Imperial Conference attended only by party leaders, of an Imperial Convention composed, if not wholly, at least in a large degree, of eminent men entirely dissociated from party politics. And perhaps it might respectfully be suggested that the natural and universally honoured Head of the Empire, standing as he does, by virtue of his exalted office, outside party and high above it, might think proper, when the time is ripe, to exercise his unquestioned right to summon an Imperial Convention including the foremost statesmen, administrators and jurists in the Empire, whose duty it would be to draw up an Imperial Constitution which the electors of the Mother Country and each of the self-governing Dominions would afterwards be called on to accept or reject as a whole. No amendment should be allowed, nor should any local legislature be permitted to stand between the people and the great issue submitted to them.

A convention of the kind contemplated would embrace in its personnel not only Ministers and ex-Ministers, but the holders of the highest judicial positions, former Governors of colonies or dependencies, and other men of experience and distinction. Were Australia, say, represented by Mr. Hughes, the Chief Justice of the High Court, Sir William Irvine, and an ex-Governor-General of distinction, all classes in the Commonwealth would be fairly treated. Certainly popular election on an unrestricted franchise would be about the worst possible way of selecting the members of an Imperial Convention. Questions of the most complex and difficult kind would then be flung to the mercies of political party-managers and demagogues, the whole of whose influence would be on the side, not of candidates of wide knowledge, independence of character, and enlightened views, but of obsequious instruments and flatterers pledged to support the crude notions of men possibly more ignorant even

than themselves. In all probability the result would be in several cases the election of narrow-minded partisans quite unfit to deal with questions of national importance.

Among the many advantages of nomination over election in the constitution of a body required to possess abilities and knowledge of a quite exceptional kind may be specially mentioned this.

The former method ensures complete freedom of mind to the members chosen. They are not shackled with promises made from the platform, or pledges of any kind. They are all the better representatives of a whole community because they do not represent merely the most numerous, and therefore least intelligent; section of it. It were surely madness to make the destinies of an Empire the sport of factions. And these are the inevitable products of popular elections. The more the political waters are troubled, the more the dregs rise to the surface; and when the question of Imperial union is seriously dealt with, it is imperative that calm and wise counsel should prevail over interested and noisy delusion.

In ancient Sparta, historians tell us, senators were chosen in rather a curious fashion. On a given day all the people were assembled in an open space, near which were closed chambers containing concealed umpires. Each candidate, in order decided by lot, was then required to walk past attended by his supporters, and he in whose favour, in the opinion of the hidden judges, the loudest din was raised was declared duly elected. If we have abolished election by noise, we can hardly yet claim to have recognised the supremacy of the brain over the tongue in appointing our rulers. We still cling to the old superstition of the infallibility of majorities, and seriously believe that A must be a better legislator than B because he has received the votes of a hundred ignorant people, while his rival has only received those of fifty well-informed and intelligent electors. This popular faith in the miraculous virtues of the ballot-box has led to strange developments in recent times, and it would seem highly desirable that certain influences, which notoriously affect in a very appreciable degree the results of all modern appeals to Demos, should be rigorously excluded from the decision of the greatest issue ever yet submitted to the British peoples.

A nominated convention would ensure competence and independence in all its members, and fairness of treatment to all parties and classes. An elected convention would certainly not be composed wholly of men qualified by knowledge and experience for their work, and would undoubtedly contain some who were hopelessly compromised by previous pledges, and precluded, therefore, from taking a useful part in the joint deliberations.

Men of enlightened minds and complete independence are required for the great tasks of constructive statesmanship, not pledge-bound delegates. The presence of even a few of the latter in an Imperial Convention might have the disastrous effect of introducing into the management of Imperial affairs those baneful party influences which have caused, and are causing, so much harm and discord in the component States of the future federation.

One more point might be urged. It is essential that a convention entrusted with the important task of framing an Imperial constitution should sit and deliberate in secret. Publicity, as in the case of the framing of the Australian Commonwealth Constitution, would in all probability lead to deplorable results. Extreme counsels would tend to prevail over those of a moderate kind; and such members as owed their political importance to the support of the class of electors claiming to be most democratic would most certainly seek to justify the trust reposed in them by insisting on the introduction of provisions suited to the supposed interests of their constituents rather than those of the Empire generally. Party strife would break out in the convention, and in place of unanimous agreement, the resolutions adopted would probably be carried by small majorities and in face of strong protests. The founders of the United States and the Canadian Dominion very wisely perfected the task of preparing the national deed of partnership in secret, so as to exclude undesirable outside influences and to exempt each participating member from personal responsibility. These precedents should be followed when the great work of preparing an Imperial constitution is undertaken.

It cannot be too strongly urged that, if a satisfactory arrangement for closer union among the various portions of the British Empire is to be devised, the poison of party politics must be excluded from the convention. Of all men in the world the party politician is the least fitted to undertake legislative work of the highest order. His training has induced the habit of always looking at one side only of a public question. Opportunism is his creed. He lacks both foresight and forethought, and all his energies are devoted to the profitable task either of maintaining or winning majorities. Coming dangers or difficulties he entirely ignores; and he is so busily engaged in avoiding the pebbles in his path that he fails to see the impending avalanche. In a word, the party politician is one who is *maximus in minimis*; as Dr. Dillon has well put it, he is an expert in "the art of subordinating the essential to the subsidiary."

If we are to have a convention composed of men of the type

represented by those who, when holding high and responsible positions, looked complacently on with folded hands while the enemy of their country perfected his preparations for attack; and who, for fear of losing a few votes in Parliament, refrained from checking organised revolt in Ireland; and by such double remissness brought their country to the verge of ruin, farewell to all hopes of Imperial greatness. We do not want a constitution made by politicians for politicians; we want one made by statesmen for the people. And real statesmen, the representatives, not of numbers, but of the highest political intelligence of their fellow-countrymen, are not usually experts in the art of winning popular elections. The qualified doctor is less free with attractive promises than the quack endowed with the invaluable gift of volubility, and the treatment he prescribes, though beneficial in the end, is sometimes disagreeable at the moment. Many popular physicians in the world of politics fully appreciate the advantages of ordering their clients to take port wine. And some, it might gently be hinted, give very visible evidences of their faith in the virtues of that specific.

Let us finally consider facts of some significance quite fresh in our memories. Their recollection may help us in the coming "supreme hour" of the British race. The outbreak of the present war found Great Britain and the Empire generally wholly unprepared. In spite of the clearest signs of imminent peril discernible by every man of intelligence outside politics, British Ministers neglected to strengthen the defences of the country whose safety was confided to them. It was better political business to bestow pensions on the deserving and undeserving alike; to gratify party spite by weakening the one branch of the Legislature which stood for real freedom and wise government; and to grant liberty of intimidation to mutinous working men, than to undertake the unpopular task of providing against future danger. Like the Athenian orators of old, rival party-leaders were so busily occupied in denouncing one another, and striving to win the transient favour of the populace, that the measures required to meet the menacing preparations of a hostile and formidable Power were entirely overlooked. The sentinels, heedless of their duty, played cards, while the enemy stole past and surprised the camp.

Fortune, the spirit of her people, the skill and devotion of her seamen and their chiefs, the steadfastness of her allies, and the supreme ability of our great Englishman, saved Great Britain when the long-brooding storm at last burst in full fury. She owed—and owes—nothing to her official guardians, save disastrous blunders. No one, of course, can deny that the British Ministry in office on the outbreak of war contained at least three

men of high and unusual ability and great force of character. But it is the inherent vice of the party system that it sterilises ability and debases character. It makes men regard the party as of greater importance than the nation—the petty, ephemeral triumphs of the lobbies as more to be desired than the real triumphs of wise and beneficent legislation. It were best, then, unless indeed a statesman of the capacity of Lord Kitchener's successor were to detach himself absolutely from all party associations, and become, in the true sense, a national leader, that the master-builder of a united British Empire should come from outside the ranks of professional politicians.

England, to meet the pressing need of the hour, produced a Kitchener. Is it unreasonable to hope that, to satisfy the future and common needs of the whole British race, and the aspirations of every patriotic citizen of the Empire to-day, she may soon crown the work of the great soldier and organiser to whom she owes so deep a debt of gratitude, and repay what is due to the memories of the multitudes of brave men who have freely surrendered their lives at the Empire's call, by producing a really Imperial statesman?

F. A. W. GISBORNE.

BRITISH COLUMBIA LAND

A PERCENTAGE of the agricultural land in the southern interior districts of British Columbia requires irrigation to ensure crops. Generally speaking there is abundant water within reach, but there are sections where the height of the land above water level or distance from the source of supply stands in the way of individual attempts at irrigation, and necessitates co-operation and the expenditure of capital. The supplying of water to these higher plateaux is, however, a matter for future consideration, as there is sufficient land capable of irrigation at comparatively small cost to meet the requirements for some years to come. In Okanagan, Similkameen, Kamloops, Nicola and Columbia Districts, companies have purchased large tracts of land, formerly used as cattle ranges, which they are sub-dividing into small holdings of ten acres and upwards and constructing reservoirs and ditches, which will provide a supply of water. These companies are already reaping the reward of their enterprise, as the land is being rapidly sold to settlers, who are planting orchards and engaging in mixed farming.

WHERE TO SPEND THE WINTER

SOUTH AFRICA FOR HEALTH AND PLEASURE

To anyone, having the time to spare and the money to spend, wishing to escape the cold and damp of an English winter, I know of no place that offers better advantages than South Africa. There you have perpetual sunshine, a climate that enables you to live practically in the open air and surroundings which appeal to every kind of temperament. In fact, the moment you set foot on the soil of South Africa you begin to appreciate, in a way you have never done before, that you are really living.

There, too, you find food for the mind as well as the body, the country teems with memories ancient as well as modern. It matters not whither you wander something fresh awaits you, something of interest, something that pleases. The vastness of the veldt with its brilliant colour and varying hues fascinates and attracts, while the fresh clear atmosphere invigorates much in the same manner as a summer spent in the Highlands of Scotland. Whether you enjoy the best of health or are the victim of nervous breakdown or overstrain, or whether you are suffering from some organic disease, a few months spent in South Africa will act as the best tonic in the world.

Hundreds, one may almost say thousands, of young men, the majority in the prime of life, have been invalided home from the various fronts, some with nerves shattered, others with lungs impaired or crippled with rheumatism. The best thing that could happen to these men would be to give them a few months' rest in South Africa. I commend the suggestion to the Government, who there is reason to believe are directing their attention just now to the necessity of providing additional convalescent homes for invalided soldiers, officers as well as men.

Few parts of the Empire have advanced so rapidly as South Africa. Scarcely a hundred years ago, to all intents and purposes, it was an unknown land. Many persons now living can recall the map of Africa showing as it did only a few settlements on the coast. Up to 1850 the voyage to the Cape occupied seventy days,

and excepting the small line running into Portuguese territory from Delagoa Bay no railways outside British territory were constructed until 1890. Away from the track of the locomotive, all travelling was done by ox waggon. As for hotels, they did not exist. The only thing to be done was to outspan and sleep by the wayside.

How different the South Africa of to-day ! In place of a long and dreary voyage in a sailing-ship with poor food and other discomforts, one reaches the Cape in seventeen days after a most delightful sea trip in one of the fast new steamers, fitted with every convenience and replete with every comfort, belonging to the Union-Castle Line. Every part of South Africa is now linked up by railway, and the traveller passes from one centre to another as easy as from Land's End to John-o'-Groats. Speaking in connection with the opening of the Aliwal North-Zastron railway the other day, the Minister of Justice gave some figures of railway construction since Union. During that period 635 miles of railway have been built in the Cape Province, 769 in the Transvaal, 205 in Natal, and 333 in the Free State, in all 1,942 miles. The open railway mileage in the Free State compares very favourably with that of any other British Colony, the only Colony with a greater number of miles of railway open in proportion to its area being the Dominion of New Zealand. The rolling stock equals that of the great Continental expresses, corridor carriages, restaurant cars and sleeping compartments, all of the newest type and fitted with a view of lessening fatigue and making the journey as pleasant as possible. Excellent accommodation is provided *en route*, even in what only a few years back were regarded as remote districts, while at the more important centres there are hotels to suit the requirements of every traveller. In short, South Africa, from being what one may call a primitive State, has blossomed forth into wonderland, due mainly in the first place to the discovery of gold and diamonds, and secondly to the far-seeing policy of Cecil Rhodes.

What only half a century ago was looked upon as a poor country is now regarded as one of the most brilliant of the stars in the Empire's orbit. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that the future of South Africa lies alone in its wealth of minerals. Boundless as that wealth is, one must not forget its agricultural prospects. Even now farming and ranching offer golden opportunities, and each year sees more land brought under cultivation and greater attention paid to the prosperous industry of cattle raising.

No more pleasant sea trip can be undertaken than the voyage out to the Cape. In normal conditions the mail steamers of the Union-Castle Line call at Madeira, while the intermediate

steamers touch alternately at Teneriffe and Grand Canary, so that the traveller can always spend a few hours on shore and see something of these picturesque islands. At Cape Town that historic monument, Table Mountain, with the Devil's Peak on one side and the Lion's Head on the other, is a sight never to be forgotten. Approaching from the sea in the early morning the top is often covered with a great white cloud, "the table cloth" South Africans call it, and a silvery mist spreads over the sides hiding for a time the beauty of the many gorges.

The Cape, at one period the centre of South African life and the "hub" of the sub-continent, was described by Sir Francis Drake "as the most stately thing in the whole circumference of the earth," while James Anthony Froude, writing of Cape Town in later times, says: "In all the world there is perhaps no city so beautifully situated." The oak avenue more than two hundred years old, the botanical gardens, the magnificent buildings and the general air of the place are alike irresistible.

From the slopes of Table Mountain the view seaward is very fine; while the suburbs, to mention only a few, Rondebosch, Wynberg and Claremont, with their quaint homesteads and woodland scenery, leave an impression not easily forgotten. Some say the coastline is even more beautiful than the Riviera. Certainly the sea is quite as blue, and if anything the trees and flowers more luxuriant. Moreover, as Mr. Hamilton Fyfe reminds us, the climate during our winter, which is the South African summer, "can be counted upon for regular daily sunshine and soft but not hot nights; it is warm, dry and equable, and does not play tricks. Here is an ideal land of sunshine for our winter butterflies."

One has not space to tell of the drives and promenades along the shore or of the beauties of Camps Bay, Kalk Bay, and Muizenberg, where so many South Africans spend the summer months. Then, too, there is Mossel Bay, where some of the Union-Castle steamers call. From the cliffs above the town a magnificent view is obtained of the coastlines of George, Knysna, and Humansdorp, and of the peaks of the Outeniqua mountains, while to the westward the coast stretches away past the Visch and Vlesch Bays. Port Elizabeth is a busy commercial town. Thither visitors come from all parts of South Africa to enjoy the sea-bathing. East London is another thriving commercial town and a quiet holiday resort.

Then how little known is Natal, a perfect seaside and tourist resort with most delightful surroundings. At high water, with the sun setting, there is no more beautiful picture than Durban Bay. Albert Park is a familiar picnic spot, where one can rest under the shady trees and watch the yachts passing to and fro,

or the steamers entering and leaving the harbour. The whaling stations are situated under the shadow of the Bluff, and it is an interesting sight to see the whales being brought in. Steamers come alongside the wharf to land their passengers, and trains leave daily for Johannesburg and Pretoria. Few railway journeys are more enjoyable than that through the Karroo, the great plateau of South Africa. The train never hurries; indeed, pace would be impossible, as the line curves round mountains and skirts kopjes throughout the route.

The battlefields of Natal and elsewhere, Kimberley, with its wonderful diamond industry, Johannesburg, with its gold mines, Pretoria, Bloemfontein—all are full of interest. One might multiply again and again the towns and places for the tourist to visit, and yet there would be more to add. The Drakensberg Mountains, with peaks rising to a height of 12,000 feet, are known as the Switzerland of South Africa. Not only is the scenery superb, but valuable opportunities offer themselves to the geologist, botanist, and naturalist. Still further afield are the far-famed Victoria Falls, one of the greatest natural wonders of the world, sending up a column of spray 1,000 feet high and visible at a distance of fifty miles. When one remembers the journey to the Falls in days gone by, it seems almost incredible that comfortable trains now connect them with Cape Town, running in connection with the arrival of the Union-Castle Line steamers. At the Falls one also finds an excellent hotel.

I do not pretend to have exhausted even the chief points of interest in South Africa, but I have outlined a few places where a very enjoyable stay could be made.

If you do not wish to return by the same route, you can come back by way of the east coast in one of the Union-Castle boats. Indeed, the monthly service to and from Durban along the east coast not only places within easy distance of the tourist and sportsman a country full of interest and beauty containing the best big game shooting in the world, but it provides a delightful alternate voyage from South Africa to the Motherland. In ordinary circumstances you embark at Durban in one of the company's East Coast steamers, and proceed to Mombasa, calling on the way at Lourenço Marques, Beira, Mozambique, Port Amelia and Zanzibar. From Mombasa you can travel by the famous Uganda Railway to Nairobi and thence on to Lake Nyanza. This, Mr. Roosevelt tells us, is "the most wonderful journey in the world." If time permits, the journey may be extended to Entebbe or even further; or you can continue the voyage from Mombasa through the Red Sea, the Suez Canal and the Mediterranean, calling *en route* at Port Sudan and Khartoum, and after seeing the wonders of Egypt, proceed to Naples or

Marseilles, thence finding your way overland to London. In fact, it is possible to circumnavigate Africa by the Union-Castle Line, only changing steamers once, at Durban, in about two months.

TRAVELLER.

THE BURDEN OF THE DAY

WAIT. We are strong, with the strength
Of men that trust their kind;
War drags its blood-stained length,
Red war lies still behind;
Death treads from hill to vale,
Grief is crying in the gale—
Hear me, brothers; we are great,
We can wait.

When our fathers fought before,
For our freedom, for our home,
For our kingdom on the shore,
For our empire on the foam—
Was it but a fiery day
Ere the foemen sped away?
Hear me, brothers; we were great,
And could wait.

We have fought. And in that fight
Has a man proved coward yet?
For this noon of world-wide light
Who are we that shall regret?
Brave our sons, and side by side
They have fought, and they have died;
And a million not less great
Only wait.

GEORGE BIDDER.

THE AWAKENING OF MODERN BRITISH IMPERIALISM

DURING the first forty years of Queen Victoria's reign the fires of Imperialism seemed to have gone completely out in England. The failure of our first attempt to found a colonial Empire had begotten a pessimistic attitude with regard to all ventures of a similar kind. National confidence was shaken to such an extent that no hopes were entertained that a second attempt would be more fortunate than the first; so, on the principle of making the best of a bad job, we pretended to ourselves that the loss of the colonies would be the best thing that could happen for us, till we came to believe this was really the case.

In those days our foreign and colonial policy was guided by the tenets of the Manchester School, that is by purely material and commercial considerations. To politicians and philosophers of this way of thinking the only matters of great consequence were the extension of our trade and augmentation of our wealth. They judged of others by themselves, and conceived of men in general as too immersed in the pursuits of trade and money-making to have either the time or disposition for war, so detrimental to both these objects. Nor was it probable we should ever require the aid of our colonies. On the other hand they held that the colonies increased the possibilities of our being involved in war, and, in the event of attack, would add to our responsibilities and dangers. From the commercial standpoint their value was insignificant. Of what importance to Britain, whose market was the whole world, were a few sparsely peopled and undeveloped colonies? A great historian has truly remarked that selfishness is always short-sighted; and the Manchester School completely overlooked two possibilities—one the development of the colonies in wealth and population, the other the growth in the industrial capacities of other parts of the world. In their view the colonies not only brought us in nothing, but cost us much. They looked forward to the day

when their wings would have grown and they could fly away from the parental nest.

The colonies for their part could not have been unaware of the attitude of the Mother Country towards them. There was certainly nothing in it to inspire attachment. Nevertheless in the oversea parts of the Empire Imperial sentiment was stronger than we had any right to expect, although, to quote the words of Lord Rosebery, but "the pale shadow of what it is now."

It is the darkest hour that precedes the dawn. British Imperialism had died away like perennials in autumn, and there was nothing above the ground to indicate that the plant still lived. It was just when most men had settled that it must be dead that a few green shoots appeared above the surface. The Imperialism of the masses had not died, but had only been taking its winter sleep. It served the purposes of the chosen few who controlled the nation's destinies and stood for the nation in the eyes of the world to lull British Imperialism to sleep with soothing assurances of security. In these they believed themselves, and circumstances favoured the belief. Since the defeat of France at Waterloo no other European power had become sufficiently formidable to menace our Empire.

It is significant that with the reappearance of clouds on the international horizon British Imperialism awoke to life, although we must not therefore assume that the second event was the effect of the first. The cloud that appeared in 1870 was no bigger than a man's hand, but it spread rapidly and the nations of Europe became alarmed, and an acute rivalry commenced between them in the political, commercial, and colonial spheres. These were the years of the "scramble for Africa"; and the value of her colonies became enhanced in the eyes of Great Britain when she perceived that other nations set store by and coveted them.

Soon after 1870 flutterings of the newly awakened Imperial consciousness are observable. At the Crystal Palace in 1872 Disraeli spoke with contempt and indignation of the policy of the Manchester School, and gave it as his opinion that it was the loyalty of the colonies, and that alone, which had saved the Empire from disruption. The great Conservative statesman did not content himself with the purely negative function of criticism, but stated what other measures ought to have accompanied the granting of self-government to the colonies. His views on this subject mark him out as a pioneer of the new Imperialism, and were so far ahead of his generation that I cannot resist quoting verbatim the passage in which he gave them: "Self-government, in my opinion, when it was conceded ought to have been conceded as part of a great policy of imperial consolidation. It

ought to have been accompanied with an imperial tariff, by securities for the people of England for the enjoyment of the unappropriated lands which belonged to the sovereign as their trustee, and by a military code which should have precisely defined the means and the responsibilities by which the colonies should be defended, and by which, if necessary, this country should call for aid from the colonies themselves. It ought, further, to have been accompanied by some representative council in the metropolis which would have brought the colonies into constant and continuous relations with the home government." But Disraeli was not the only one who held these views. In 1874 the Imperial Federation League was formed by a group who were of the same way of thinking. The objects which it proposed to itself appear very ambitious when compared with the attitude of contemporary public opinion to colonial questions, but this is a characteristic of pioneers in general. Their goal like all distant objects appears to be much nearer than it really is; and they have not yet sufficient acquaintance with the road thither to be aware of its length and turnings, or of the dangers and difficulties to be surmounted. For years Britain, although unconsciously on the part of the majority of her people, had been treading the way to dissolution. Even now she was only just awaking to the merits of the opposite road, and the ambitious and ardent spirits who inaugurated the Imperial Federation League were panting to go the whole length at one bound! Nearly forty years have passed since then, and by far the most difficult and perilous part of the way has yet to be covered.

The progress made in the next ten years seems small when compared with the ambitious schemes of the Imperial Federation League, but we advanced if slowly. Within this period appeared two books which may be considered gospels of the new faith. They proclaimed in trumpet tones the glory of the order of things that it was desired to establish some day. We had been blind to the fact of the Empire. Seeley in his 'Expansion of England,' published in 1883, and Froude in 'Oceana,' published in 1885, tore away the scales from our eyes. Froude was much impressed by the changed attitude of the public to this subject in ten short years in the interval between his two visits to the colonies. A remarkable proof of the loyalty of Greater Britain was given at this time, when clouds and darkness rested heavy on our future. At Khartoum the Union Jack had been trailed in the dust and Gordon abandoned to his fate. The difficulties, danger and even shame of Britain, and who was chiefly responsible for them, were seen more clearly in the colonies than at home; but above all this one thing stood out, that the mother country was in distress and it was the duty of her children to

rally round her. Froude was present at Sydney when the decision had just been formed to raise a contingent for service in Egypt. He was taking a profound and far-sighted view of the incident when he looked upon "this small body" as "an earnest of what they might do hereafter." It was a noble faith that in those days could predict: "If ever England herself was threatened, or if there was another mutiny in India, they would risk life, fortune—all they had—as willingly as they were sending their present contingent." Probably even Froude, were he to revisit the earth to-day, would be astonished to see how his words had been fulfilled.

Soon after its birth an event happened that threatened to strangle the new Imperialism while it was yet in its cradle. This was Mr. Gladstone's proposal to give Home Rule to Ireland. Captain Mahan says that was "the moment really decisive of the Empire's future—as an Empire," "the critical instant, the moment of shock, which determined both that the conception should come to the birth and that, being born, it should not be strangled in its cradle." The nation had to definitely decide which road it would follow, whether it would engage in the process of breaking up what its fathers had joined, or continue their work of consolidation.

Hitherto the supporters of dissolution had been leading the country blindfolded, but the rise of the Imperialist movement forced their hands and compelled them to lay their plans clearly before the electorate; that they might record their verdict and at the same time be fully conscious of what they were doing. To their surprise and chagrin it was given against them. They had not counted on this, since for long years they had been perseveringly educating the people in Little-Englandism. But the people had never really sympathised with them, and had only supported them in ignorance of their real intentions.

The country had not long turned its back on the dissolution road before it took its first definite step in the opposite direction. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill was rejected in 1886. Next year the first Imperial Conference was held. The most wise and far-seeing Imperialists were fully alive to its modest character, yet in it culminated the labours of fifteen years and more in the Imperial cause. To them it was only the little beginning that was in time to develop into something very great; "the parent of a long progeniture," said Lord Salisbury in his opening speech, and he dreamed of "some far-off time" when distant councils in the Empire might "look back to the meeting in this room as the root from which all their greatness and all their beneficence have sprung."

D. A. E. VEAL.

WINTER AND THE HERB INDUSTRY

FOR more than half a century the trade in vegetable drugs, of which many are familiar wayside plants, has largely lapsed to Germany, owing to the fact that only in that country has it been carried on in a systematic and organised way. Large sums of money have been annually expended by Great Britain and America for crude drugs imported from central Europe, and the profits of this trade were such that when the middleman and the wholesale herbalist had taken their toll something still remained for the peasant collectors.

Small as these gains are there is no reason why they should not go into the pockets of our own countryfolk, since even a shilling or two is acceptable to the labourer whose average wage scarcely amounts to a pound a week. I do not say that "weeds" are profitable things to grow, but the farm hand gains something if in his fight to exterminate them, some at least can be turned to account instead of merely burnt. All the facts of the case are now fairly well known. What, however, remains to be settled is whether or no the Government intend to protect the herb growing industry, provided it can be established on anything like a national scale, by the imposition of some small tariff against the imported article.

A chemist who has interested himself in the growing of belladonna since the outbreak of war, writing in the 'Pharmaceutical Journal,' indignantly required another correspondent, who had supposed that the drug trade would largely revert to its old channels, to abandon anonymity and subscribe his name to so unpatriotic a surmise. Whether or no the growers of this immensely war enhanced commodity are to be protected by a tariff was one of the most pertinent inquiries made at the conference of medicinal herb growers held at the Carlton Hotel late in September. We have been hearing a great deal during the past months of the pros and cons of the proposed boycott of German trade after the war, but the object of imposing a small

tariff such as that which may prove of vital import to the herb industry, could form no part of any vindictive campaign of commercial "punishment." On the other hand it would be an act of commercial prudence taken in the interests of English rural folk and a revived English rural industry. Without some measure of protection the efforts which date from the publication of the leaflet of the Board of Agriculture, "On the Cultivation of Medicinal Plants in England," by Mr. Whatmough (August, 1914), will possibly be brought to naught. If within the brief space of one experimental—and largely educational—year (since anything like a general response to the leaflet's appeal only began in the spring of 1916), English countryfolk all the land over have risen to the occasion, done their best to make good the shortage of hitherto imported medicinal herbs, and evinced every sort of readiness to meet the wholesale requirements of the manufacturer, it seems unpatriotic to suppose that the law of commerce, to buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest, would immediately reassert itself if the war were to end and the whole trade and its modest profits flow back to Germany and Austria.

No doubt such a fate would inevitably overtake the herb growing (and collecting) industry in England—since neither sentiment nor patriotism rule in commerce—were the English product inferior to the continental, or were the methods of the English producer to remain overlong on an experimental or an amateurish basis. It is, however, a fact that in many, and in some of the principal instances, the English grown medicinal herb is superior from a therapeutical and pharmaceutical point of view to the second grade or adulterated article exported from foreign countries; and the manufacturer would be impatient indeed if he were not prepared to give the herb-growing centres throughout England two seasons in which to correlate their energies, test their soils, study the technique connected with the drying and baling of their crops, and generally learn their business. The consumer, upon whom the increased cost would fall, presumably, of *not* buying in the cheapest market, would have the advantage of a superior article. And in no class of goods is the best so imperative as in drugs.

The past season has been an experimental one in a good many respects. The Herb Growing Association has had an unforeseen amount of pure propaganda work to do as distinguished from its real sphere of operations between grower and collector and buyer. Interest in the production of medicinal herbs has assumed the proportion of a rage. It may even assume the proportions of a fashionable cult now that vegetable *materia medica* are being grown in the royal gardens. All this would, perhaps, have outstripped the capacity of a newly founded

organisation to deal with the situation were it not that various rapprochements have taken place between the Herb Growing Association and other influential bodies,* an outline of which was given by Professor Greenish in the issue for September 16 of the 'Pharmaceutical Journal,' the object being to secure stability for the enterprise.

All sorts of efforts were made by collectors at first only to end in disappointment. The wrong herbs were collected for lack of proper initial identification; the wrong processes of preparation—or of no preparation at all—were employed for want of experience or of expert instruction; the wrong methods of consignment were adopted for lack of business training. If the truth must be told some criticism was incurred by the Herb Growing Association, and some exasperation has been felt on the score of correspondence, acknowledgments, and remittances, the collectors throughout the country having no conception of the mass of business which has devolved upon an executive too small to deal with it, struggling meanwhile to organise on a sufficient scale, and handicapped for want of funds. Nor have the collectors understood the methods of payment, etc., customary in the drug market. Even at the end of the herb collecting season an extraordinary amount of confusion still exists as to the identity of a score of the scheduled "required" plants. Nothing then could be more opportune than the advent of winter as a period not exactly for botanical study, but in which to assimilate the mass of practical information issued by the Herb Growing Association throughout the past summer months, to say nothing of those two admirable lectures delivered by Mr. Holmes at the invitation of the Central Committee before the Royal Horticultural Society, and at Caxton Hall.

If indeed the winter is so employed no time has been lost, and the would-be herb growing or collecting community will be in a good position to begin *informed* operations at the earliest possible moment next spring. This is the only way by which the amateur may become expert, and by which the manufacturer's sole excuse for preferring to deal with the continental peasants and their representatives may be disallowed.

In spite however of the tentative, embarrassed, overwhelming and entirely war-circumstanced operations of those who have been endeavouring to revive the herbalist industry in this country during the past year, a great deal of admirable work has been accomplished. Tons of herbs well dried, well packed, well sold, have reached the London market through this new national channel of the Herb Growing Association. The economic and

* The Central Committee for National Patriotic Organisations, and the Agricultural Organisation Society,

patriotic aspect of the industry has been preached far and wide, and in a very large number of places active steps have been taken to inaugurate it on a sensible co-operative basis. "During the past season," writes Professor Greenish, "considerable progress has been made in the cultivation, drying and marketing (of herbs), and much useful experience has been accumulated. Initial difficulties have been overcome, the drying is much more efficiently conducted [than at first], and the quality of the produce much improved. Drying stations are being established in increasing number, and the efficiency of the methods adopted compared. The number of belladonna, henbane, and other plants under cultivation has been increased . . . some sort of co-operation was necessary, and this was provided. . . . Experience is being gained in determining the minimum price that could be accepted, and the current market price offered for the drugs."

In one district a disused mill is being used as a drying station (it has often been suggested that the Kentish oast houses would serve such a purpose admirably), where "bunched leaves of nearly every English variety of medicinal herbs hang in row after row from the heavy beams, drying in the breeze from the open door." "Some convalescent soldiers staying in the neighbourhood of the East Anglian branch of the herb industry volunteered to collect herbs, and from the hedges they brought all sorts of plants to the drying station; a small party of men lately collected three cwt. of foxglove leaves during one expedition. . . . Children bring their little contributions; farmers, amused and interested that their weed pests are valuable, send the weeds from their cornfields, and paid experts utilise them in a building voluntarily provided by the local landowner, who on a reserved plot experiments with the cultivation of digitalis and other poisonous plants to the benefit of the nation."*

The Central Committee circularised the large landowners of the country, urging them to devote a portion of their land to the cultivation of medicinal plants under the expert supervision of their gardeners. The appeal was most successful, and numerous offers of land and of assistance followed.

I have myself had very pleasant experiences going down into the heart of some of the most beautiful English farming districts to meet the ladies who live in serene, perhaps historic, old manors surrounded by hundreds of acres of ancestral pasture or corn lands, and who take in the countryside the same interest that used to be taken by my Lady Bountiful of an earlier day. Through these ladies has come the introduction to the squires of the neighbourhood, the farmers, the school-

* 'Pharmaceutical Journal,' September 16, 1916,

masters and mistresses, the local health authorities, and others, who collectively have taken the most receptive interest in the movement for rescuing so essentially a pastoral industry from alien and enemy competition. But the first requirement has always been information of the most elementary character. The "literature" on the subject was at first wholly inadequate, and herb-collecting was not to be learnt from botanical text-books. Even now nothing more educationally useful could be imagined than a lecture designed for rural audiences illustrated by lantern slides of the herbs and "weeds" in medicinal request, and of the processes of their cure and baling for market.

Apart, again, from the landed proprietor, the Herb Growing Association have created a set of conditions under which the cottager and the small holder may hope for some little share in the work and the profits of this industry. We are hearing a good deal these days of patriotic initiative in many directions, and one of the best of these is in using up waste ground and unoccupied plots in urban districts for the improving and increasing of the food supply. A scheme of this description organised at Croydon accounts for the wonderful total of fifty acres of land, while over seven hundred families are benefitting by the possession of a vegetable garden patch otherwise unutilised! Maidstone Corporation has also been experimenting in "municipal farming," and a potato patch of little under four acres at the sewage disposal works has shown a profit of £160. I just missed the opportunity of farming a fine plot of land—neglected garden at the back of a house used for an Army and Navy Club—rent free, by some one else having seen it a day or so before and bespoken it for a similar utilitarian purpose. Here, again, is a chance for the would-be herb grower. Very fair additions to any collective crop—say of the aromatic pot-herbs—could well be raised on such plots, and bulked in with others to make up the hundredweights and tons required.

Although the summer is over it is a mistake to suppose that the topic of the herbal industry can be laid aside until the spring. On the practical side, just as the gardening year begins in the autumn, so must all the preparatory work for herb-farming be done in the winter months. Now, of course, is the time for gathering the wild seeds, fruits and roots for the stocking of the *materia medica* garden. On the side of propagandism, too, much remains to be done, not only in disseminating information about the organisation and methods of the industry, but by way of inducing landowners and estate agents to entertain the applications made to them by collectors for permission to gather wild plants in uncultivated or fallow places. That permission is often *unreasonably withheld*. Again, the governing authorities of institutions such as orphanages

must be induced to allow the children to do work of this nature (provided they are under proper control and supervision) where permission can be obtained, since there are herbalist crops like dandelion root and couch grass which it were rather futile to attempt to harvest unless in a wholesale concerted sort of way. *There is waste of medicinal material all over the country*, but the experience of the would-be collector, and organiser of collectors, is frequently to be confronted with the law of trespass, or to encounter blank refusal of permission to gather the herbs. The waste is therefore due not only to ignorance of the value or use of these things but to the curmudgeonly spirit which denies access to them.

Finally, no time spent during the winter in mastering the botanical aspects and practical details of the work will be lost, but will go far towards equipping the amateur herb collector for the activities of another season.

ADA B. TEETGEN.

NEW ZEALAND WAR PENSIONS

CONCESSIONS, of a greater liberality than in any other part of the world, are made by the New Zealand Government in its War Pensions Amendment Bill. The provisions of the principal Act are extended not only to members of the Expeditionary Force prior to their departure from New Zealand, but also to persons engaged in New Zealand on military service in connection with the war. The pension of a female dependent of a member of the force is to cease on her marriage. The principal Act provided for mothers to be over fifty and fathers over fifty-five before being entitled to pensions. This provision is extended to parents of disabled, as well as to parents of deceased, soldiers. Parents who were dependent on their sons at the time of enlistment are, by the principal Act, entitled to pensions irrespective of age. The new principle for the computation of pensions provides that a pension payable to a member of the forces, or to the wife or child of such member, shall not take into consideration the property or income from any source of the applicant. The definition of "dependent" in the original Act is widened to provide that the Board may grant a pension to a person who satisfies the Board that by reason of a soldier's death or disablement he has suffered material loss of income or property. Pensions commence as on the date of death or from the date of discharge, although the Board is allowed to fix dates in special cases. An important clause abolishes the schedules of the original Act, which set a maximum to the pensions which could be drawn.

TRADE NOTES FROM OVERSEA

CANADA

From the Canadian Department of Trade and Commerce at Ottawa is being sent to business firms throughout the Dominion a "Call for action" in Canadian productions and export trade. Leading business men are being invited to formulate plans for the development of export trade and to send in plans before the great trade congress to be held shortly in Ottawa. The Minister of Agriculture, in the absence of Sir George Foster, is organising the Congress, from which valuable results are confidently anticipated.

THE total forest area of Canada capable of yielding merchantable timber is estimated at 414,000,000 acres, 130,000,000 acres of which are situated in the Province of Quebec, and made up as follows :—

	Acres.
Private forests	6,000,000
Forests leased as timber limits	44,500,000
Forests on lots under location ticket	1,300,000
Township forest reserves	200,000
Forests not in timber limits	73,000,000
	130,000,000

These forests vary greatly and include high forests and pure stands of maple. In some parts they are of a mixed character, yellow birch, beech, maple, ash, mingled with spruce, balsam, fir and red and white pine. The value in dollars of one year's production for the Dominion is £36,400,000, of which about 30 per cent. is produced in the Province of Quebec. This Province employs on an average every winter not less than 22,000 men who work in the woods.

EARLY in 1915 the Canadian Government put an embargo on aluminium shipments to countries other than British, although shipments were permitted to be sent to a few American firms working on war contracts. There were also exported to the United States from Quebec 17,000 tons more of asbestos in 1915 than in 1914, at an increased valuation of £121,626. Asbestos is an important mineral product of that province. The industry was unfavourably affected by the outbreak of war, as Germany and Austria were the principal markets for the higher grades of asbestos. There has been an increased demand for this article,

however, from the United States, Great Britain, France and Italy, due in a large measure to military and naval requirements. This demand has greatly revived the industry, which has continued to improve ever since, and there is reason to anticipate wider markets after the war.

THE Canadian Pacific Railway Company is laying plans for another record season at St. John, New Brunswick, next winter. It will be remembered that all records for the port were broken last year by an export valuation of 24 millions sterling as against £8,600,000 in the previous year. The Canadian Pacific Railway's programme of improvement, which has already been entered upon, calls for additional trackage space sufficient for 350 cars in their west-side freight yard. This will bring the total yard accommodation up to 1,850 cars. All light rails now in the yard will be replaced by heavier metals; a new coaling plant will be erected, a 20,000,000-gallon fresh water tank installed, and the capacity of the sidings between St. John and Montreal increased. Other concerns are likewise providing for increased demands on their freight and passenger handling capacity.

A NATURAL and healthy expansion of the paper and pulp industry is taking place throughout the Province of Quebec, where are found abundant water power, excellent timber resources, sufficient labour and shipping facilities, and every other factor making for the economic manufacture of pulp and paper. This expansion has been accelerated by the unsettled conditions arising out of the war, and the cutting off of supplies from Germany, Norway, Sweden and other countries. It is estimated that the yearly yield of sugar and syrup from the maple forests of the Province of Quebec is worth \$700,000 (£140,000). The greater portion of these forests lies in the central valley of the St. Lawrence, and they are divided up in small properties seldom exceeding fifty acres on an average. Out of a total forest land of 130,000,000 acres only 6,000,000 acres come from the old Quebec seigneurs, the remainder consisting of land sold to settlers by the Government or granted to railways in aid of their construction.

THE port of Halifax has shared to a marked extent in the wave of prosperity that has for some time been manifest all over Canada. The Board of Trade returns for 1915-16 contain some interesting particulars as to the exports and imports of the port. The exports totalled over 16 million dollars, of which agricultural products contributed 5 million dollars, fisheries \$4,500,000, manufactures 2 million dollars, mines \$1,500,000 and lumber \$1,500,000. The imports for the same period totalled \$17,709,000. It is satisfactory to note also that the bank returns showed an appreciable increase, while the building permits issued in Halifax are estimated at one million dollars. This figure is, of course, exclusive of military and railway work. The value of real and personal property situated within the confines of the city is estimated to have increased during the last five years by over 5 million dollars.

IN recent years Canada has entered the field as a grower of sugar beet. It has been found that certain parts of the Dominion are ideal for

the cultivation of this crop, and with modern manufacturing methods Canadian-grown beet is producing a sugar equal to any grown elsewhere. For Canada it means an industry already very important from the labour standpoint. It means furthermore an industry that supports, on an exceedingly profitable basis, hundreds of farms in Western Ontario and elsewhere. In the counties of Essex, Kent, Lambton, Waterloo, Wellington and Huron thousands of acres are devoted to the cultivation of the crop. Sugar beet is also grown in parts of Western Canada. The Agricultural War Book, published by the Canadian Department of Agriculture, pays special tribute to this comparatively new industry, pointing out that it is only a matter of time until Canada can produce at home an even larger proportion of the sugar consumed in the country.

THE value of the training given at the Aviation School, Toronto, has been frequently praised. A notable appreciation of the position it occupies was recently given when the president and three other members of the Aero Club of America visited the Toronto flying school, in order to gain information which might better aid them to spend the 17 million dollars appropriated by the United States for purposes of naval and military aviation. The Americans were very much impressed by the methods used at Canada's foremost flying school.

THE Ontario Government states that within a short time a laboratory, supported by Government funds, will be in operation at the University of Toronto, with the object of making scientific investigations into the refining of nickel. One of the features at the National Exhibition, Toronto, is the Government exhibit of toys. There are many of Canadian manufacture, but the section devoted to those manufactured in Germany, Austria, Japan, and Great Britain, provide an object lesson for native manufacturers who are establishing similar industries in the Dominion.

THE new fuse manufacturing plant erected at Montreal is now in satisfactory operation, and over 3,000 men are in constant employment. By the establishment of this factory Canada can now produce for Great Britain over a score of thousand of shells every day, all ready for the artillery at the front to fire. Like Great Britain, Canada is now recruiting girls and women to work in the munition factories, and it has already been found that their work is of inestimable value to the cause of the Allies. They are easily trained to handle machines and have proved competent and reliable workers, but many more are needed.

THE condition and situation of the Province of Quebec suffice to indicate its finny wealth. From the sporting point of view it is unique and offers boundless amusement for the angler. The Government has very wisely imposed restrictions on the exercise of this sport in order to keep up the richness of the waters, and they maintain fish hatcheries for their gradual restocking. Excellent reports from sportsmen all over the province state that capital sport has been had since the opening of the season. The sea fisheries, which are the source of a very large trade, are carried on in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the catches are exported all over the world. Record hauls and prices have been realised during the last two years.

THE apple production of British Columbia this year is estimated at about 10 per cent. over that of last season. Of last year's crop about 30 per cent. was used in the province; 60 per cent. shipped to the Prairie Provinces, and 10 per cent. exported to Australia, New Zealand, Great Britain and elsewhere. Already this year the full capacity of the vessels trading to the Antipodes has been contracted for, and the export to those points would be larger were the carrying space available. According to the latest reports received by the Government the apple crop is generally in good condition. The crop in what is known as the dry belt—the Okanagan, Boundary and Thompson River sections—is exceptionally clean. The hot weather in June affected many trees which had felt the severe winter, and, in consequence, the June "drop" was heavy. But the prospects from the standpoint of quality this year are much better than last.

A FEATURE at present of the fishing industry in British Columbia is the preparation and marketing of herring, which are now in greater demand than ever before, due to the fact that the prevailing prices for other staple breakfast commodities, such as bacon, eggs, etc., are, in consequence of the war, much higher than usual. The kippered herring represents the choicest fish from the catches, carefully cleaned, salted and smoked. A large number of workers are employed in their preparation, and the industry, which is in its infancy in British Columbia, promises to develop into one of great importance. When the herrings arrive in port they are sorted according to size, condition and general fitness for various purposes. The most perfect of the catch are selected for kippers and the poorest are chilled and kept for bait. This is another of the new industries which the war has introduced into Canada and which are likely to remain there permanently fixed after it has been terminated.

THE Ontario Government has set aside \$100,000 as the first instalment of the money the province is to loan to the settlers of Northern Ontario to enable them to develop their farms. Further amounts will be provided as they are required. Under the legislation of last session the Government adopted the policy of advancing money to settlers on the security of their cleared land, a limit of \$500 per settler being fixed. The Government Loan Commissioner is now in Northern Ontario dealing with some 200 applications that have already been received.

PUBLIC offices in Canada, as at home, are being depleted of their staffs to the utmost extent possible. The Civil Service of the Dominion has given generously of its officers, and the record is not yet complete. During the first ten days of August sixteen Civil Servants at Ottawa yielded to the lure of the guns and enlisted with the Canadian Field Artillery, most of them with the 73rd Battery. A correspondent writing from Calgary, says: "The people of Western Canada are determined to see this war settled to the satisfaction of the Empire, and with this object in view we are giving of our best both in men and money." Saskatoon Postal Service has no fewer than thirty-eight men on active service, while two were killed in action, one died of wounds, four are in hospital suffering from wounds, and three are prisoners of war.

THE women of Grey County, Ontario, where the 147th Canadian Battalion is being raised for service overseas, are giving a notable example of patriotism. To enable their husbands or sons to join up 500 women have cheerfully taken up the work of the farm. One patriotic mother aged 60 years, who has one son a prisoner in Germany, another in the 147th battalion, and a third drowned last spring, told the commanding officer that, with the assistance of her son for two weeks and her 70-year old husband, she and her daughter, whose husband is also in the same battalion, handled the entire crops on their farm.

THE story of the Canadian Pacific Railway is told by Mr. Keith Morris, in a neatly bound little volume just issued by William Steevens, Ltd. The letterpress, which is illustrated, is full of life and interest. If the information given is not altogether new and the style not exactly vivid many pleasant memories are revived, and there is much in the telling of the story that pleases and attracts.

DOUGLAS fir grows only on the Pacific slopes west of the Rocky Mountains, from a point about the middle of the coast of Oregon to a point in British Columbia in a line with the north of Vancouver Island, about 500 miles in all. It is a very valuable timber for structural and building purposes where great strength is required, timbers manufactured from Douglas fir having a greater strength for their weight than any other building timber. As evidence of the remarkable qualities of Douglas fir, an official of one of the great British railways, in a recent letter to the Chief Forester of British Columbia, stated that out of 616 sleepers of Douglas fir laid down more than sixteen years ago on a main line over which traffic of 15 million tons per annum passed, only twenty-three had been renewed, the remainder being still in excellent condition.

THE improvement of educational facilities in the Province of Saskatchewan came under discussion at a meeting held for the purpose in Regina. Among the questions discussed were the problem of securing good teachers, the child in remote districts, changes in text-books, the subjects that should be taught, taxation, agricultural schools and other school systems. Resolutions were passed calling for medical inspection, physical culture courses, changes in the courses of instruction in the high schools and an educational survey of the province. The meeting was demonstrative of the general interest that is taken by the public of Canada in the problems associated with the education of the young.

THE Nova Scotia commercial fruit belt is about 120 miles long, by from ten to fifteen miles wide and is sheltered on both sides by ranges of hills. For many years the growers had the option of two methods of disposing of their products. They could either sell outright or ship on consignment to commission merchants. It was found, however, that neither of these methods was quite satisfactory to the grower. Late in the summer of 1907 a small body of farmers formed a co-operative company at Berwick, Nova Scotia. It was composed of twelve reliable fruit growers, men who had the ability as well as the desire to produce

the best fruit. The company from the commencement employed only the most expert packers that could be secured, and when shipping began they were able to place upon the market a pack of apples that for uniformity and quality was superior to anything previously offered. They were also able to deliver car loads of apples of any variety all under one brand, one barrel being representative of the whole. The transportation problem was then taken up. The unusually heavy crop had caused congestion. Special fast freight trains were arranged for and special steamers were chartered. The congestion was relieved within a few days and the fruit reached England in record time and in excellent condition. The policy of the organisation in its sales branch is to get as near to the consumer as possible.

THE southern branch of the Stefansson Canadian Expedition has returned from the far north, and the commander, Dr. Anderson, gives the following information to a Canadian correspondent: "We were instructed to survey the copper deposits already known and seek new ones. Every explorer from the earliest times had noted that the Esquimaux east of the Mackenzie (River) used knives, spear heads and other weapons and utensils hammered from copper: and the Coppermine River, which empties into the Arctic, got its name from mineral discovered many years ago. We found on Coronation Gulf and Bathurst Inlet vast deposits of copper of low grade. We were not equipped to undertake mining operations, but upon the sides of cliffs we could measure the depth of successive flows of amygdaloidal lava containing nuggets of copper. An Eskimo brought to us a lump of copper weighing 40 lbs. There were seams in the lava that had been filled with pure copper." Estimates of the area of ore in sight have been made for the benefit of the Canadian Government. The ore is workable from the surface and is near navigable waters. It would therefore be feasible to construct a railroad from the Mackenzie River, which is navigable five months of the year, to Great Bear Lake, which also is navigable for the greater part of the year. A further railroad line could be built from the lake to the copper fields, enabling the transportation of the ore to the interior of Canada by way of the Mackenzie River.

SOUTH AFRICA

CONSEQUENT upon the war and the difficulty of getting shipment owing to the requisition of so many steamships for war service have tended to throw South Africa upon its own resources, and a decided filip has been given to local industrialism by the restrictions on oversea trade, and South African factories have for the most part enjoyed a large increase in their turn over. An interesting indication of the above facts is to be seen in an advertisement at present appearing in the leading papers of the Transvaal to the effect that a sum of £100,000 is available for the establishment or support of promising industrial undertakings.

THE general manager of the South African railways, in a recent report, points out that shipping companies which have hitherto relied

entirely upon other coals have as a result of war conditions had to resort to South African coal, and it is anticipated that many of these companies will on the return of normal times continue to use this coal. The price of bunker coal at South African ports has not been seriously affected by war conditions in comparison to prices at competitive bunkering ports. This will be readily seen from the following comparison of the prices of bunker coal per long ton (2,240 lbs.) at certain ports on the trade routes between Europe and the East :—

Durban	20s. 9d. to 24s. 6d.
Cape Town	32s. 6d. to 34s.
Port Said	106s. 6d.
Aden	110s.
Madeira and Las Palmas	89s. 6d.
Teneriffe	89s.
Naples	110s.

The cheap rate at which coal is obtainable at Durban and Cape Town and the greater immunity from war risks of the Cape route will act as strong incentives in attracting shipping to South Africa during the continuance of present conditions.

It has been found that the stalks of bananas contain alkali in sufficient quantities to be treated for industrial purposes in the making of salt of potash. When one remembers that there is scarcely an industry into which some salt of potash does not enter, and that the greatest "hold up" which Germany has been able to bring off during the war has been the deprivation of the Allies of their normal supplies, it will be seen in how great a degree this discovery will benefit practically the whole world. In early times this alkali was obtained by burning the leaves and twigs of trees in iron pots, and washing the salts out of the residue, hence its name. In Ireland and Scotland, Brittany and America, the seaweed was collected by the peasants and burnt, an old process in use for the extraction of iodine, and the ash was treated for its potash salts. The dry residue, amounting to about 200 lbs. to a ton, gave 4 per cent. of potash salts. It is suggested that in Natal and the Low Veld, the districts which produce the largest quantities of bananas, should establish centres for treating the ash after the farmers have burnt the stalks.

DESPITE the abnormally dry season, the output of Natal sugar for the season 1915-1916 was about 112,000 tons, and constitutes a record. It is not possible yet to estimate with any degree of certainty what the 1916-1917 crop will yield, but given normal weather conditions during the crushing season, the output should not be less than that of 1915-16. The yield per acre may be less owing to the drought, but, on the other hand, the area to be reaped will be greater, whilst a new mill at Umfolozi, in Zululand, has been erected. The amount of Natal tea plucked and manufactured last season was approximately 1,800,000 lbs., and the crop of the present season is estimated to be about the same weight as last.

THE value of the total export of wattle bark from Natal since the industry commenced is nearly £3,000,000, whilst the value of the timber

sold as mining props and for firewood is in the neighbourhood of £2,000,000. Growers are now working towards a longer rotation with a view to producing heavy mining props instead of the lighter laggings now supplied. Should this prove successful, the timber will become the main product and the bark only the bye-product, with the result that the industry is likely to become less dependent on the European market than hitherto.

At a recent exhibition from thirty to forty ostrich skins were shown, properly tanned and cured. The skin can be had in various colours and in all thicknesses. The skin just after tanning is about twice the thickness of a goat skin, and is very tough, and possesses a very strong fibre, the beauty of which is that unlike the skins of quadrupeds, the fibre is not interwoven, but lies in separate layers, so that they may be pulled off by hand to get whatever thickness is required. A tanned skin is procurable at from 6s. to 7s. 6d. There is no reason why ladies' leather goods, slippers, and many other articles should not be made from the ostrich hide.

THE Transvaal Fruit Growers' Association has received an intimation from the Government Horticultural Division that the export of citrus fruits has been arranged to continue at weekly intervals until the end of September, and afterwards if necessary. The Union-Castle Steamship Company is giving one-half the entire cool chamber space for the export of fruit. This will enable fruit exporters to send away over 1,300 tons per cool chamber during the three months, as against 1,000 tons allotted for the fruit last year. In addition, space in the ventilated hold, and in some instances on deck will be available. Arrangements are generally more favourable to fruit exporters than was the case last year.

THERE are about twenty tanneries throughout the Union at the present time, of which two-thirds belong to the Cape Province. The output of leather in 1914 was estimated at a value of over £260,000. Largely and mainly as a result of the increased protection given the industry in that year, the value of leather manufactured in the Union has increased to well over half a million pounds sterling. A significant fact worth mentioning in this connection is that leather to-day is cheaper in South Africa than in any of the world's markets. A start has been made with the export of leather. Three small lots of army upper leather, of the value of £2,500, and one lot of sole leather valued at £1,000, have been sold on the English market during the present year.

A NEW tannery has recently been established for the manufacture of leather from local hides in the neighbourhood of Pretoria. Since the outbreak of the war considerable activity has been shown in this line of business, and the older tanneries which are mostly situated at the coast have very largely increased their output. The larger proportion of the footwear required in connection with the campaigns in German West and German East Africa has been supplied from leather manu-

factured in the local tanneries. Satisfaction is being expressed in South Africa at the action of the French Government in removing the embargo which was temporarily placed on the importation into France of crayfish, of which nearly 4,000,000 lbs. were exported to Europe during 1915. Chicory is now produced on a commercial scale in South Africa. It is grown in the vicinity of Johannesburg, East London and Durban.

THE currency in Swaziland is British coin, and coins of the late South African Republic, which are of similar denomination to the British. All such British and Transvaal coins are legal tender—in the case of gold coins for payment of any amount; in the case of silver coins for payment of an amount not exceeding forty shillings; in the case of bronze coins, for payment of an amount not exceeding one shilling. The National Bank of South Africa, Ltd, has a branch at Mbabane, where the amount on deposit at March 31st, 1916, was £40,516. The northern and southern parts of the territory deal with banks in the Transvaal, which are more conveniently situated to those parts. The average bank rate of exchange with London was one half per cent. At the various Post Offices in the Territory Post Office Savings Bank business is conducted. The number of depositors at March 31st was 186 with a total credit of £1,968. The National Bank of South Africa also conducts Savings Bank business.

THE National Bank of South Africa have declared an interim dividend at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum (6s. per share) for the six months ended 30th September, 1916, payable to all shareholders registered on the 4th November, 1916. Holders of share warrants to bearer are informed that on presentation of Coupon 36 at the office of the bank in London, the same will be paid at the rate of 6s. per share, less Income Tax, between the hours of 11 and 2 (Saturday excepted). Forms can be obtained on application, and coupons, which must be lodged three clear days for examination, will also be payable at the offices of Rotterdamsche Bankvereeniging, Amsterdam, Crédit Mobilier Français, 30 and 32, Rue Taitbout, Paris, Head Office of the Bank, Pretoria, Transvaal.

THE Government Industries Committee is vigorously tackling the question of making rope in the Union of South Africa, and the latest report on the matter reveals progress of a highly encouraging nature. Fibres of all kinds—e.g., cotton, flax, hemp, jute, aloe and sisal—are grown in large quantities practically all over South Africa, and it is understood that the territory recently known as German East Africa—but which is rapidly becoming a part of the British possessions—is prolific in the production of valuable fibres of all descriptions. All the rope used in the past in the German Navy was manufactured from fibre grown in that Colony. In the Union, however, we are very backward in turning our resources to account, and only a small percentage of our fibre is utilised. From twenty-five to thirty tons of aloe fibre is being exported to Great Britain from South Africa every month, realising between £30 and £40 per ton, and no doubt a portion of this comes back again to

South Africa in the shape of manufactured rope at a considerably heavier figure. At Port Shepstone a really live effort is being made to deal with locally grown aloe fibre, and the busy little factory at that place is producing all kinds of rope. It is interesting to know that rope made from aloe fibre gives nearly 50 per cent. more length than the imported manilla rope, whilst the cost of the local production compares very favourably with the present ruling prices for the imported article. Sisal fibre of a splendid quality grows extensively in the Transvaal.

MR. RUSSELL, late Agent-General for Natal, has a volume of poems appearing with Messrs. Blackwell. The volume is entitled 'The Old and Young Lands' and has a preface by Sir Herbert Warren. Mr. Russell spent his boyhood in South Africa and his youth at Oxford. His verses breathe the spirit of the Briton beyond the seas—the love of the new home, the love of the old home, and the love of the Empire.

DESPITE many difficulties and drawbacks the annual cotton crop in South Africa is increasing rapidly, close upon one thousand acres having been placed under cultivation this year in the Transvaal alone. During the last two years the Transvaal has produced 900,000 lbs. weight of seed cotton, a large portion of which has been used locally, and it is estimated that the crop will be largely increased this year. Endeavours are now being made to obtain the necessary plant for the purpose of extracting oil from the seed and which, if successful, will render the crops more valuable. Whilst Rustenburg, some fifty miles east of Pretoria, is at the present time the premier cotton district, supplies in smaller quantities are coming from the Transkei, the Eastern Transvaal and Natal. Reports from these districts as to the prospects of future crops are most encouraging.

NEW ZEALAND

NELSON is noted not only for the beauty of its climate and surroundings, but for the truly golden harvest it yields to orchardists. A recent visitor to this beautiful spot writes:—"An improved apple land is quoted at £25 an acre; planted one-year old, £50 to £70 an acre, ranging upwards according to age. I inspected several orchards, about 10 acres in extent, from 8 to 11 years old, yielding from £1,000 to £1,500 a year. These figures may seem large, but anyone inspecting the orchards would have no doubt on the point. The trees are laden with fruit like strings of onions."

A MOTION is before the New Zealand House of Representatives that, with a view to assisting the development of trade within the Empire after the war, the National Ministry appoint at once a Trade Commissioner in England who has a wide knowledge of the requirements of the Dominion, and an intimate acquaintance with commerce generally, in order that strenuous efforts may be made to prevent trade, after the war, drifting back into German hands,

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS,

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FINANCIAL FACILITIES AND BRITISH TRADE

POINTS FOR CONSIDERATION

IN all wars the question of finance has played an important part, but in no war has it occupied so prominent a position as in that now being waged between the Central Powers and the Allied Nations. Indeed, some people think the present campaign will be lost or won on finance alone. Be that as it may, one thing is certain, there can be no sustained effort on either side without a sufficiency of funds.

It would be most unwise to count on a rapid economic exhaustion of Germany, we must look for victory rather from the strength of the Allies than from the weakness of the enemy. Whatever view be taken of Germany's economic position, the resources of the British Empire are greater than anything the enemy can put into the scale. True, the strain is severe and will be more so, but its very severity has shown, and will continue to show, the solid foundations on which British finance is based. The fact that for the space of twenty-eight months we have financed ourselves as well as assisted in financing our Allies, and that we have done so without either impoverishing our country or our people, is a sure indication of our ability to continue the same policy until the war is brought to a successful and triumphant conclusion.

In the year before the war, the revenue of this country amounted to £200,000,000. Since August 1914, that amount has grown to £500,000,000. Compare the extra £300,000,000 with the additional £25,000,000 raised, or hoped to be raised,

in Germany, and we get some idea of what the two countries are able to do by taxation. No other nation engaged in this life and death struggle has increased its revenue in the way we have done. No one can deny that the great rise in taxation which has accompanied the great rise in revenue has been felt by the people of this country; but no one can say that the burden, heavy as it is, has not been borne cheerfully by all sections of the community.

Some critics tell us we are getting too much money by taxation, that if the Government had resorted to a policy of tariffs it would not have been necessary to have taken so much money out of the pockets of the people. Admittedly, there is much to be said in support of this criticism; at the same time one is bound to acknowledge the soundness of the argument put forward in favour of the course adopted by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. If we were over-straining our resources it would be seen in the reduction of the returns from taxation. But what are the figures? The revenue for 1913-14 exceeded the estimate by £3,500,000. The revenue for the next year exceeded the estimate by £17,500,000, while that for 1915-16 exceeded the estimate by no less a sum than £32,000,000. Instead of the yield going down it has shown an increase out of all proportion to the increase in taxation.

It is also said we are using up our capital with so little regard to the future that when peace is restored the effect will be reflected both in the manufacturing and productive capacity of our country. What we are doing in this direction we are doing for the purposes of the war and for those purposes alone. Remember, it is essential both to our existence as a nation as well as to our existence as a race that we win the war. For this end we must risk everything, trusting to victory to compensate us for the sacrifices made. Of course, if the fiscal policy to be followed after peace were to be the same as in pre-war days, it would be no use looking for any compensating advantages. But on this point one need have no anxiety. Not long ago the Secretary of State for India told us that "After our experience of this war, it is out of the question to suppose we can again pursue a policy of complete *laissez faire*, of complete *laissez aller*, of freedom from all Government interference, Government assistance, or Government help in any form." Without doubt this represents the opinion of the country. And that being so, I see no reason why British trade after the war should not only recover itself, but advance again to its old position of pre-eminence.

Again it is said that the Government should take all excess profits. This, I presume, would be one way of adopting the

policy known as the conscription of capital. Whether the plan advocated would be for the good of the country is another matter. At any rate, on this point a strict silence is observed. Already the Government are taking 60 per cent. of excess war profits, and, in my opinion, the tax has gone as high as it should go. In fact, I am not certain whether in some cases it is not already too high. Every care should be taken to gather in as much as possible in the way of taxes from those who have made money out of the war, but at the same time due care should also be taken not to cripple industry or discourage enterprise. Increased profits require increased reserves; in many instances the increased profits are the direct results of changing a business to meet the demands of the Government. When peace is proclaimed, not only will these profits decline, but many firms will be left with much larger works on their hands than they require, and a great deal of the special machinery used for the output of munitions will be practically useless for ordinary business purposes. No country can afford to lose sight of these matters, no statesman can afford to ignore them.

The legacy of obligations which the present generation must of necessity leave behind them will be one of great dimensions. After the war between France and Germany in 1870, the losing nation was required to pay a large indemnity to the winning nation. No doubt the same procedure will follow the present war, but it will take a very long time to collect the indemnities from Germany and Austria-Hungary. Moreover, Belgium has the prior claim. In these circumstances Britain will have to look mainly to her new commercial policy to meet the cost of the war. No time should, therefore, be lost in laying down the lines on which that policy should proceed.

It is, I think, very generally agreed that if we are to hold our own in the markets of the world, and at the same time develop the great natural resources of the British Empire, our pre-war ideas as to industry and commerce must, in many essential particulars, undergo some very drastic changes. Already the old shibboleths, Free Trade and Tariff Reform, are dead and gone. The Paris Conference witnessed their funeral, and mourners were few. Now and then one hears a screech from some partisan of one school or the other, but it is like the screech of a person who has seen ghosts; there is no substance in the cry.

It is the future, not the past, that the eyes of the nation are fixed upon, and if uncertainty exists on some points, opinion is solid on the understanding that never again shall the vital question of British trade become the shuttlecock of political

parties. If we are to succeed in the trade war that is certain to follow the present conflict on sea and land, if we are to meet, with the certainty of victory, the attack which, the Prime Minister informs us, Germany is organising in the markets of the Allies, if we are to come out on the right side in the competition that is sure to follow the proclamation of peace in neutral markets, we must set our house in order, and we must begin that operation now. There is much spade work to be done, and the longer that spade work is postponed the more effective will be the force arrayed against us.

In formulating a new commercial policy there are a good many pitfalls to avoid, but the removal of the most-favoured nation treatment has made the going much easier; it only remains to make a clean sweep of the remaining stumbling blocks, and the road ahead will be clear. But there must be no beating about the bush. The departure of the old order of things must synchronise with the arrival of the new era. We cannot afford an hiatus. We must be ready to step in at once. Moreover the main principle of our commercial policy must be unity. Not only must we strike on all fronts at one and the same time, but we must strike together, Mother Country and the Dominions, Britain and her Allies—no other policy can win.

After the war national, not private interests, must be given first place. Collectivism, to a large extent, must succeed individualism. Organisation and system must replace the present methods of doing business at home and abroad. Merchants and traders must no longer bow down and worship the golden calf which they themselves have set up. The days of go-as-you-please, do-as-you-please, are over never to return. Research work must be encouraged, and science play an important part in building up our industries and manufactures. The whole machinery of our commercial fabric must be overhauled, and, where necessary, replaced by new, irrespective of cost, regardless of tradition.

Other reforms that loom large on the horizon are wider co-operation and the extension of State control. The experiments of the last two years in the latter direction are not likely to be overlooked whatever Government be in power after the war. We must be prepared to see great alterations in our industrial life. Taxes will be heavy, and obligations must be met. In order that these responsibilities may not bear too heavy on the community, we must double our pre-war production. For only by doing so can we hope to keep profits and wages at the necessary level. This means, of course, reform in the present trades union arrangements. As the *British Citizen and Empire Worker* has very pertinently observed, "in industry the workers

must learn that restriction in production constitutes unsound economics." Another suggestion made by this new organ of organised labour, is that "the period is drawing near when the workers themselves must be admitted to part control of many of the industries in which they are vital factors." With this I cordially agree. The fact that the manual workers have learned at last the true meaning of Motherland and Empire marks the dawn of a new era for labour and a new advance in British trade.

State aid must be forthcoming in a variety of ways. In this connection it is most satisfactory to be able to record that some few months ago a Committee was appointed for the purpose of considering the best means of meeting the needs of British firms after the war in the matter of providing financial facilities for trade, more particularly with reference to the financing of large overseas contracts and to prepare a detailed scheme for that purpose. It was both a powerful and a representative body, and no more experienced or more capable chairman could have been found than Lord Farringdon, while the fact that he had the assistance of some of our most eminent bankers lends additional weight to the Committee's findings.

Hitherto financial facilities, in the British sense, have been limited to such help as can prudently be given without a "lock-up" that might impair the liquidity of funds and deposits at call and short notices. In other words, to advances bearing a currency not exceeding a few months. Obviously, so limited a currency would not and could not meet the needs of British firms after the war, just as it did not meet the similar but lesser needs before the war. Accordingly, the Committee very wisely and properly, in considering their report, did so on the understanding that whatever financial facilities were proposed must be of wide import and far-reaching in character.

No one can say that British banks have not in the past afforded liberal accommodation to the home producer, nor have our bankers been reluctant in making advances on the strength of their customers' business ability and known integrity. Moreover, the charges made have often been lower than in foreign countries. Similarly, the Colonial banks and British-foreign banks have rendered substantial aid to British trade abroad, while in this country banking houses have ever shown themselves ready not alone to provide capital, but to assume risk in connection with operations undertaken both here and abroad by British contractors. But useful and patriotic as these facilities have proved, they have lacked the advantage of co-ordination.

Again, British traders not infrequently require finance of a

kind which joint stock banks could not provide without disregarding their obligations in other directions. On the other hand, German banking firms have so arranged their financial obligations as to be in a position to give unlimited assistance to undertakings of the most varied description. Indeed, it is no exaggeration to say that, by means of the facilities afforded by German banks, not only has German trade been promoted, but business undertakings have been carried through all their stages until their career has been brought to a successful completion.

With these facts in their minds, and fortified by the evidence they received, Lord Farrington's Committee had no difficulty in arriving at the conclusion that ample room exists for an institution which, while not interfering unduly with the ordinary business done by British joint stock banks, colonial banks, and British-foreign banks, and banking houses would be able to assist British interests in a manner not possible under the conditions that prevail to-day. Such an institution would not only reduce cost of production, it would assist in obtaining orders abroad, and give reasonable facilities for carrying them out. In addition, it would enable a preference to be given in matters of finance to orders executed in this country, an essential and a very necessary essential if British trade is to hold its own against enemy competition after the war.

Moreover, such an institution would be invaluable in a case where long credit is required. Commercial houses doing business abroad, say with Russia or Italy, know how this question influences the placing of an order. In pre-war days much trade was lost to this country by the inability or the unwillingness of British commercial houses to give long credit, a difficulty easily overcome by means of the help afforded through German banks. Indeed, no one outside the commercial world can adequately appreciate the difficulty experienced by British traders in conducting business in foreign countries against competitors who have always been in a position to rely upon financial support in this connection. Obviously there must be branches or agencies in all important centres, but here the British institution would have an advantage over German banks, as it would be able to work in conjunction with the British-foreign and Colonial banks, whereas German banks have had in very many instances to inaugurate subsidiary undertakings.

In connection with the institution there is to be an information department, independent of but in close touch with the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Board of Trade. By the aid of an auxiliary of this kind if it were found that foreign firms were securing business in competition with British firms, or were developing business that British traders were leaving

alone, the causes could be investigated at once. Naturally, the staff would have to include men well versed in technical questions of a commercial character, as well as possessing men of engineering and chemical knowledge. Needless to say, the cost of working such a bureau would be large, although it might be lessened by utilising the services of experts as consultants rather than employing them upon a whole-time salary.

Three distinct departments are proposed, financial, industrial, and commercial, the whole controlled by an executive committee consisting of a chairman, with three managing directors, who would not only draw salaries, but be entitled to a substantial share in the profits. To assist the executive committee a board of directors is proposed, consisting of men having banking, financial, industrial, and commercial knowledge. Both women and men are to be employed on the general staff, and no youth is to be engaged without a language qualification. Every clerk would have a few years' training abroad, and it is suggested that the institution might assist the Government in settling men after the war by enabling them to start in business for themselves oversea with the express object of pushing British trade. If financial aid be given by the Government to undertakings connected with "key" industries, the institution offers a useful medium for carrying out the business; it might also be usefully employed as the agent of the Government for carrying through all foreign, commercial and financial operations in which they may be interested.

Hitherto syndicates, often assisted by banks, have been mainly responsible for conducting investigations and launching commercial undertakings. It is proposed to utilise the institution in this connection, and there is no doubt that its *imprimatur* would have considerable value when issues were made to the public. Moreover, an issue under such auspices would be an assurance to the public that until final completion there would be no risk of the priorities given at the time of issue being interfered with by pre-preference creations. Although the institution itself is not to come under Government control, it is expected that it would receive as much official recognition as possible.

The British Trade Bank, as the new institution is to be called, will be constituted under Royal Charter, with a capital of £10,000,000, only part of which is to be called up in the first instance, the further issue to be made, if possible, at a premium. It is not to accept deposits at call or short notice, and is only to open current accounts for parties making use of the overseas facilities which it would afford. It is to have a foreign exchange department, and a department for the issue of credits at home

and abroad. Branches or agencies are to be set up only in places where no British-foreign bank of importance exists, and banking agency arrangements are only to be entered into with existing Colonial or British-foreign banks where the arrangements can be completed upon reasonable terms, but no arrangements are to be entered upon for a specified period.

Where desirable, the Bank will co-operate with the merchant and manufacturer, and possibly accept risks upon joint account. But in its sphere of operations it is not to interfere with any business for which existing banks and banking houses now provide facilities, although it is intended that it should promote working transactions on joint account with other banks, and invite other banks to submit to it new transactions which, owing to length of time, magnitude or other reasons, they are not prepared to undertake alone. Such in brief is the story of the new institution which, if properly worked and given the necessary Government assistance, should not only prove of material help to British trade, but become, at no distant date, a distinct commercial success.

Closely associated with the progress of Britain's foreign trade is the reform of our Consular Service. It is many years ago since I appealed in the columns of the *Times* for commercial attachés. These officers were at last provided, but although several Commissions and Committees have sat to inquire into the conditions surrounding appointments to the Consular Service, matters have been allowed to remain as they were, with the result that trade which ought to have come to us has gone to Germany and America. The war has opened the eyes of the British public to the shortsighted policy in this respect pursued for decades by the Foreign Office, and signs of a change are pending. For instance, in future we are to have no persons of foreign nationality entrusted with the duties of British Consuls. So far so good.

The excuse put forward for so pernicious a practice is that the majority were unsalaried officials, that is, they were paid by fees or allowances. Thus, it happened that in 1913 out of thirty-seven unsalaried "British" consular officers in Germany, twenty-nine were Germans. Even now in Denmark twenty out of twenty-four unsalaried "British" consuls are foreigners. In Norway the numbers are twenty-five and twenty-six, and in Sweden twenty-one and twenty-four. I do not wish to imply anything, but it stands to reason that "unsalaried" officials of foreign nationality are not likely to make the same effort as salaried officials of British nationality in the way of pushing British trade. Moreover, what is to prevent the "British" consul taking over consular duties for another Power, and is

it not asking too much of human nature to expect a "British" consul of foreign nationality to push British trade in return for fees and allowances alone, when he can push the trade of another nation on higher terms?

The matter will not bear examination, and the sooner our Consular Service is placed on a business-like footing the better for British trade. In neutral countries the change should be effected now. The system is faulty at every point. With our eyes open we gave some of our most important consular posts to Germans. True, we never thought Germany would war against this country, but we all knew, and the Foreign Office knew, that Germany was our greatest commercial rival, and yet with this knowledge we were content to play into the hands of Germany. And what for? For the sake of economy! Could political folly go further?

Well, it is no use crying over spilt milk. What we have to do is to act. Henceforward we must have an Empire trade policy. We must also have something in the nature of an Empire finance policy. I do not mean that the Dominions and the Motherland should pool their moneys, nor, of course, do I refer to any common system of taxation. I am thinking of a financial policy that will embody the suggestions and proposals made by Lord Farringdon's Committee. I am also thinking of contributions to an Imperial fund for defence purposes. For instance, after the war, we can no longer continue to finance the Navy from Westminster. Oversea assistance as regards naval defence must be placed on an Imperial footing and met out of a common fund. This arrangement does not necessarily interfere with the formation of local navies, but no plan of overseas contributions can be really Imperial unless it can be one in which all parts of the Empire participate.

At home we must have a Ministry of Commerce and a Minister answerable to Parliament with a seat in the Cabinet. At present our overseas trade, foreign and Colonial, is in the hands of the Board of Trade, the Foreign Office, and the Colonial Office. There is no uniform head. Statistics are out of date before they are published, foreign and consular reports are circulated months, sometimes a year or more, after they have been written. With the present system, or rather want of system, it is not possible to give effective consideration to the recommendations of the Paris Conference. There must be a change, and that change must take place now. What we want is not a partial reform but an Empire policy that will ensure our pre-eminence in the commercial world for all time.

THE EDITOR.

THE EMPIRE OUTSIDE THE NARROW SEAS

THE Empire is now engaged in the greatest war of all time. There never was a moment of Imperial expansion when responsibilities were greater and when the worth of personal and national character was more effectively tested by conditions and events than in this period of tension, of effort, and of strain.

We are in the midst of a titanic struggle, by sea and land, in many climes and places, between about half the population and many of the diverse races of the earth. There is nothing, in these khaki days, of the stirring splendours of plumes and drums, of the quality that once made the adventurous occasion so alluring. The inspiration in these more mechanical and less resplendent times must come from within; from the temper that steadily responds to call upon manhood and devotion.

Whether tested by the number and power of the nations engaged, the scale and character of the operations, the waste of life and energies, the principles and institutions at stake, by material cost or moral significance, there was never such a struggle since the world began. And, it is but a truism to say, that the greatness of the issues, and of the strain, and the far-reaching possibilities of the struggle, appeal to the Imperial vision and sense with a force which should prove irresistible, and which no one, who shares the prestige and privileges that are symbolised by the Flag, can without dishonour deny or ignore.

When we try to conceive the extent, the elements, and the texture of the Empire we are baffled by magnitude and complexity. The mind, which so freely finds solutions for the great problems of eternity, and sees the facts of life less clearly than those behind the veil, cannot, in all cases, give definite or comprehensive, and so comprehensible shape to the elements, or outline to facts and forces familiar to feeling. It is at least less difficult to form than to express a conception of an Empire with parts throughout the globe; the growth of the more recent centuries, but comprising civilisations which seem, in our limited retrospect, to be as old and venerable

as time itself; India with over 200,000,000; Africa with near fifty millions; the self-governing dominions in Africa, Australia and America; the fifteen Crown Colonies; the Protectorates and the spheres of influence; all in touch and temper through the many forms of one equal freedom, and sharing and extending the prestige of a centre that Shakespeare, in the language of patriotic affection, referred to as "dear for her reputation throughout the world." But one must trust for an adequate conception to imagination, to that swift thought, that inner vision, which happily brings all space and time, for ever beyond the reach of earthly experience and perception, to compass of the little world within. Let us consider the vital, the saving spirit.

Gibbon, in his eloquent close to the history of the Byzantine dynasties, dwells on the baseness of the means by which many Emperors attained their elevation and the consequent instability and emptiness of the Imperial throne. In the six hundred years of power, which pass so quickly before our minds, "the grave is ever beside the throne, the success of the criminal is almost instantly followed by the loss of his prize, and our immortal reason survives and disdains the sixty phantoms of kings who have passed before our eyes and faintly dwell in our remembrance." And the cause, he tells us, was that they trod the crooked and bloody path of selfish policy. When the Roman worlds fell under the fury and shock of the barbarian invasions; when the South had been ravaged by the Huns and the Goths, and Gaul by the Germans, Huns, and Franks; freedom sought a new home in the North, in the two sister islands, ample in size, as Newman so beautifully puts it, happy in soil and climate—"so secluded and secure in their sea-encircled domain, that they have been thought to be the fabulous Hesperides, where heroes dwelt in peace"—the larger of the two called Britannia, the lesser Hibernia. And, on the whole, whatever may have been the internal troubles of the two; though defective sympathy, or lust of power, or the inevitable desire of one man to direct how another is to live, may have led to the misunderstandings, the waste, and the sufferings of some centuries; freedom has there found a congenial sphere and clime.

In external policy, in Dominion expansion, the temper has been commendable and salutary, the administration disinterested and sure. In this we find the secret of final success, of Imperial solidarity and affection. It is the permeating spirit of freedom; of that liberty which John Adams, one of the patriots of the American Revolution, said was the end, the use, the designation, drift, and scope of the British Constitution, that is the source of its integrity and strength. When, and to the extent to which, it was denied or curtailed, as in the case of the American colonies,

disaffection followed. "We view," said Burke, "the establishment of the English Colonies in the principles of liberty, as that which is to render this kingdom venerable to future ages." It would, of course, be as idle as pharisaical to pretend that the government and expansion of the British Empire has been exempt from mistakes, that, to a greater or less extent, have marked accession, conquest, and settlement in the case of every Imperial power. It is not Kipling—though he, the virile singer of Imperialism, has freely acknowledged the days of error when rulers for a time strayed from righteousness—who wrote some thirty years ago:—

Set in this stormy Northern Sea
Queen of the restless fields of tide,
England, what will men say of thee,
Before whose throne the worlds divide.

But it is human to err; and in the development and mutations of national life, in the expanse of dominion, however beneficent, there must be events and episodes that cannot well be controlled or foreseen, some incidents involving vicarious suffering as unmerited as undesigned.

The errors of a disturbed stage or moment were never permanent parts of the system or principle of administration; and as soon as the vigilant eye of the central Government was brought to bear upon the situation in distant Colonies or Dependencies, the remedy was applied, and Imperial peace and order became established, and prevailed.

There was a time when it was partly, though not to the extent of the orator's fervid imagination and rhetoric, true, that our friendship missed the mark in India, when, in the early years of settlement, before the ways and thoughts of those who came by conquest or acquisition under our care were understood, the work of Britain seemed, after twenty years, as crude as it was on the first day. Young men, boys almost, governed there in 1783, without society, and without sympathy with the native. "They have no more social habits with the people than if they still resided in England, nor indeed, any species of intercourse but that which is necessary to making a sudden fortune with a view to a remote settlement." But the intervening years brought a marvellous transformation. The enterprising spirits, who are the pioneers of regular settlement or occupation, soon become, or give place to, the official agents of civil administration; life and property grow secure; industrial and agrarian development take a new and economic direction; great public works supply the means of, to some extent, correcting the irregularities of nature, or the defective relation of means to end; justice and sympathy elicit a response in loyalty and affection; until, when in the

moment of Imperial danger, the call to arms comes, India sent her 70,000 men—horse, foot, artillery, British and Indian together, Rajput and Gurka and Sikh and Pathan “to fall into line beside their brethren and the French.”

And we know that it was the workings in the descendants of British settlers of the same spirit which makes the Empire one, that, through the fatuity of some statesmen of the time, lost the American Colonies to the Empire. “The spirit which now resists your taxation in America,” said Chatham, “is the same which formerly opposed loans, benevolences, and ship money in England; the same spirit which called England on its legs, and by the Bill of Rights vindicated the English Constitution; the same spirit which established the great fundamental essential maxim of your liberties—that no subject of England shall be taxed but by his own consent.” The breach with the colonists was through the misapplication of undoubted authority, the exercise of which was inexpedient, though, as Lecky shows, had some moral justification in the circumstances of the time. For years before the war the American colonists, who displayed in local and mutual relations a temper that made for internal disunion, were inclined to throw upon the Mother Country the whole burden of their defence. It was the Imperial troops and pay that drove the French from Canada, the Spanish from Florida, and defended the frontiers against the Indian tribes. People who decline to contribute towards their own defence supplied some moral, if not constitutional, justification for Imperial taxation.

But the point is that the spirit which at length arrayed discordant States in a united front against Great Britain had been inherited from the common ancestors of those whose use of power was resented, but not without the deepest regret; the same temper which is of the essence of the Imperial tissue and connection, and which Webster, fifty years later, found reflected in the sentiment dear, he said, to every true American heart, and no less vital to our own Imperial sense—“Liberty and Union, now and for ever, one and inseparable.” The Empire then, in its growth from a central potency of life to the contexture of settlements and Dominions that throb with hope and energy over one-fifth of the world to-day, has passed through tempering vicissitudes, through checks and bracing trials, that give, as the winds to the mountain oak, the rooted strength and iron tenacity, the balance and co-ordination of parts, to the majestic proportions of the Imperial structure of our time. Its elements, as we have seen, comprise some of the oldest civilisations; peoples that were in themselves in a sense, and for a time, Imperial throughout many disturbed centuries of alternating supremacy and subjection, but who never felt the true significance of Imperial peace until the

advent of a power that came, through enterprise to develop, and through justice to subdue. All races under the Flag are now united through one heritage of proportioned freedom, and one nexus of sincere affection.

The Athenians, said Pericles, were alone among mankind, in doing benefits, not on calculations of self-interest, but in the fearless confidence of freedom. Though we do not claim, as they did, a monopoly of beneficence, self-dependence and self-control are ours in at least equal measure. So what the Greek orator said of his city, to an extent, with the limitations of truth and of modesty, may be applied to us. In his immortal tribute to the dead who had fallen for the city of their birth and inspiration Pericles claimed that Athens, as a whole, was an education to Greece; that her members yielded to none, man by man, for independence of spirit, many-sidedness of attainment, and complete self-reliance in limbs and brain. "That this," said he, "is no vainglorious phrase, but actual fact, the supremacy which our manners have won us itself bears testimony. No other city of the present day goes out to her ordeal greater than ever man dreamed; no other is so powerful that the invader feels no bitterness when he suffers at her hands, and her subjects no shame at the indignity of their dependence. Great indeed are the symbols and witnesses of our supremacy, at which posterity, as all mankind to-day, will be astonished. We need no Homer or other man of words to praise us; for such give pleasure for the moment, but the truth will put to shame their imaginings of our deeds. For our pioneers have forced a way into every sea and into every land, establishing among all mankind, in punishment or beneficence, eternal memorials of their settlement." Rare must have been the civic virtue that could find, in the fervent words of the orator or in the imagination of the historian, a memorial so inspiring for the long ages that were to come.

But it is, I think, our privilege, and in us less vainglorious, to say that ours has been the mission to touch to purer and to finer issues the Imperial ideal. Sentiment and power may supply a basis for Imperialism, but when justice, seasoned by mercy does not complete and correct them, the Imperial edifice lacks its crown and glory. And it is because we have sought, with an eye, perhaps, at times on more material ends, to set Justice above Power, consideration beside supremacy; to acquire or conquer through enterprise and energy, that through generosity and freedom we might develop and control; because we have ever held the trident and taken up the sword to assert those principles and methods of mutual relation and of government that are true and lasting bases of prestige and domain, and have been the source and stay of British extension and admini-

stration ; that the future can, I feel, be faced with a quiet assurance and modest confidence which, we need not the imperative monitions of conscience to tell us, a just intent can bring.

P. McM. GLYNN.

PEACE? THE EMPIRE'S ANSWER

PEACE? What have ye to do with peace? Behold
How violated Belgium helpless lies,
A prey to brutal lust ; and Serbia cries
Loud-voiced to Heaven ; and Poland's glassy stare
Proclaims her daily torture ! Who would dare
Squander a nation's sacrifice of blood and gold ?

Peace? What have we to do with peace to-day,
Whose sons long months ago sprang forth to fight
For freedom, and to re-establish right?
Still undefeated evil rears his head,
Though Flemish plains and Turkish shores are red
With British blood. Shall we their holy cause betray ?

Peace? Hark what answer rings across the seas !
Australia's sons fling back the word with scorn ;
New Zealand, Africa—in strength newborn,
And that great first Dominion of the West—
All Greater Britain's bravest and her best,
Demand their right to beat the tyrant to his knees.

Peace? Peace forsooth ! An unctuous Teuton whine !
Foiled in his schemes the murderer preaches peace,
And dreading vengeance claims that war should cease.
Thrice fools who hearken ! Still the German heart
Degraded, lying, treacherous, feels no smart
Of penitence, though all the nations for the right combine.

Peace in due time. Far off we mark its gleam,
As when the sunrise tips the tall green hill
And leaves the dales in shadow. We fulfil
The aim for which our banner was unfurled,
Cut out the German cancer from the world,
And strive that peace of nations be no more a dream.

C. A. H.

CHURCH AND STATE

FROM A NONCONFORMIST STANDPOINT

OF recent years a strong movement has arisen in the Church in favour of greater freedom of action, whilst a larger and more important share in its counsels has been demanded for the laity. At the instance of the Representative Church Council the Archbishops, early in 1914, made a concession to the party of reform by appointing an influential Committee "to inquire what changes are advisable in order to secure in the relations of Church and State a fuller expression of the spiritual independence of the Church as well as of the national recognition of religion."

This Committee has submitted a very able and exhaustive Report* on the whole problem. In some 300 pages the past relations between Church and State are reviewed, the constitutions of the other Churches of the Anglican Communion described, and a comprehensive scheme of reform is proposed. The whole report is characterised by a spirit of moderation and sound statesmanship, and the reforms suggested are worthy of very careful attention.

The Committee arrives at the conclusion that in order to attain reasonable freedom for the Church it is essential to establish a Church Council, representative of clergy and laity, with power to legislate on ecclesiastical affairs, subject to constitutional safeguards. Subordinate to this supreme assembly of the Church are the present Diocesan and Ruri-decanal Conferences, whilst as the unit of representation a new body—the Parochial Church Council—is to be founded.

In considering the question of lay representation the Committee has availed itself of the Report on the Representation of the Laity, prepared by the Committee of the Representative Church Council appointed by the two Archbishops in 1913 at the request of the Council. With a few amendments this Report has been adopted. It fixes the Church franchise as follows:—

(a) All *representatives*, to whatever assembly they are elected, must be actual lay communicants of the Church of England, above twenty-one years

* "Report of the Archbishops' Committee on Church and State," July, 1916.

of age, and of the male sex, except that the representatives on a Parochial Church Council may be women.

(b) *Qualified electors* in a parish must be above twenty-one years of age and may belong to either sex, provided that they either (1) are actual communicants, or (2) have been baptised and confirmed and are admissible to Holy Communion, and do not belong to any religious body which is not in communion with the Church of England. Their names are to be kept on an electoral roll; and anyone wishing to be placed on it must sign a declaration that he or she is qualified to be enrolled.

The Committee rightly lays emphasis on a provision enabling those qualified electors, who have identified themselves with the worship and work of a parish other than that in which they reside, to exercise their franchise in that parish, if they so desire, instead of in the parish in which they reside.

The elections of parochial representatives to the Parochial Church Council are to take place annually at a parochial Church meeting of qualified electors, convened by the incumbent of the parish.

I pass on to the question of the powers to be accorded the Parochial Church Councils. The Committee recommends that they shall be authorised :—

(1) To frame in consultation with the incumbent the Parochial Church budget, including the various church expenses, the diocesan quota or apportionment, the parochial contributions for home and foreign missions, and any other branches of church work, and to arrange for raising the money required ;

(2) To fix with the incumbent the number and allocation of the collections in church ;

(3) To co-operate generally with the incumbent in the various activities of church work in and beyond the parish ;

(4) To maintain the electoral roll ;

(5) To make representations to the Bishop * as regards :—

(a) The suitability of any person presented to the Bishop to be instituted to the incumbency of the parish ;

(b) Alterations in services and ornaments ;

(c) The affairs of the church in the parish.

(6) To make complaint of, and to open proceedings against, an incumbent "in the same manner as parishioners or inhabitants of a parish have, or may hereafter have, power ;"

(7) To accept and hold gifts of property ;

(8) To levy a voluntary church rate ;

(9) To assume all the ecclesiastical powers of the vestry ; and also the duties and liabilities of the churchwardens in respect to the matters under sections (1) to (8) inclusive.

These are substantial powers, and represent a considerable advance on present practice, but the recommendations are very vague on the share of the congregation in the choice of an

* The Parochial Council "should be the normal channel of communication between the parishioners and the Bishop of the diocese."

incumbent, and the adjudication of differences between the congregation and the incumbent. The difficult and important question of patronage is not discussed. Apparently the present system of Church appointments is to remain unaltered. The Parochial Council can "make representations to the Bishop as regards the suitability of any person presented to the Bishop to be instituted to the incumbency of the parish," but apparently the last word will remain with the Bishop and the patron, and as at present a man obnoxious to the majority of the parishioners can be granted the living. Again, the Parochial Council can "make complaint of, and take proceedings against, an incumbent in the same manner as parishioners or inhabitants of a parish have power." In other words, the incumbent cannot be removed unless he preaches false doctrine, or creates a scandal by his conduct. A thoroughly unpopular man cannot be removed, nor can an idle or worldly man. We can admit that such incumbents form a minority, but they form a very serious and harmful minority, and hamper the vigorous life of the Church out of all proportion to their numbers. In my humble opinion, no system of parochial reform will be complete and thoroughly effective without a remedy being provided for this evil.

In this connection one may profitably examine the parochial system in some other branches of the Anglican Communion. Any reform that is made should be in harmony with the spirit of Church constitutional history. I certainly should not advocate the adoption of Nonconformist practice in this respect by the Church of England. It would be analogous to pouring new wine into old bottles with the traditional result. Further, the Nonconformist system is certainly capable of abuse, and on all grounds, therefore, a middle course is preferable.

Let me therefore briefly refer to the valuable memoranda attached to the report on the constitution of other branches of the Anglican Communion. In Scotland in most cases the vestry exercises the right of patronage. The bishop institutes on presentation, and the incumbent-elect signs a declaration of assent to the Prayer Book and to the XXXIX Articles, and promises obedience to the Canons of the Church. Refusal to institute can be appealed against to the Episcopal Synod. Accusations can be made against an incumbent to the diocesan bishop on grounds of: (a) Immorality, or unbecoming conduct or behaviour; (b) Infringement of canonical obligations; (c) Grave neglect, habitual carelessness, or inefficiency in performance of official duties; (d) Teaching or publication of false doctrine.

In Ireland patronage is exercised by a patronage board erected in each diocese and composed of two clerical members and one

layman appointed by the Diocesan Synod to act with the bishop. "This board, on a vacancy, acts in conjunction with three representatives of the parish concerned. At such combined meeting the bishop, if he attends, has a casting vote. On refusal of nominee by the bishop an appeal lies to General Synod." Once the clergyman has been instituted to the parish he cannot be removed without his consent except by the decision of the General Synod.

Turning to the colonial churches, we find that in the West Indies, for example, the vestry, on a vacancy in the cure, selects three clergy, from whom the bishop appoints the one whom the vestry desire, but if the bishop considers that none are suitable the appointment is made in Diocesan Synod. The incumbent can be removed on the motion of the archdeacon, the bishop's commissary, or not less than half the registered communicants of the parish, on four non-criminous grounds: (a) Lack of harmony between the clergyman and his congregation, causing dissatisfaction in the district; (b) serious failure of church funds; (c) decrease in the numbers of the congregation (especially of communicants); (d) absence of sufficient reason for anticipating a satisfactory change in these respects while the clergyman remains in the cure.

A report is made by a commission to the Diocesan Council, and if the Diocesan Council are for removal, the bishop removes without appeal. If the congregation is wholly wrong the bishop admonishes them; otherwise the bishop in the Diocesan Council adjusts the matter as circumstances require.

In Canada the various dioceses have different regulations. Thus in the Toronto Synod (Province of Ontario) patronage is vested in the bishop, but before he appoints he must confer with the wardens and lay representatives of the parish. In cases of difference between the incumbent and his parishioners the bishop can on request of five qualified parishioners or of the clergyman appoint a committee of two members of synod (one clerical and one lay) to bring about a settlement, and if within a month of their appointment they report that it is detrimental to the interests of the church for the incumbent to remain in his cure, the bishop issues a commission to two clergy and one specially qualified layman of the diocese "to inquire and report," and takes such action on the report as may seem to him desirable, even to suspending or removing the incumbent.

In New Zealand, each diocese has its board of nomination, consisting of the bishop (*ex officio*) and two other members of the diocese, one a clergyman, the other a communicant layman resident in the diocese, both elected, the clergyman by the clerical and the layman by the lay members of the Diocesan

Synod. When a vacancy occurs in the cure of a parish, the bishop, where practicable, arranges a conference between the board and the vestry to consider the question of filling it up. After the conference the board nominates to the vestry not more than three clergymen to fill the vacancy, and the vestry, within three months after the nomination, either accepts or selects one of the three or the one nominee, if but one be nominated. In default of any action on the part of the vestry, there is lapse to the board, which, however, may not select any nominee rejected by the vestry. The bishop may decline to institute a clergyman thus nominated and accepted or selected. Both the board and the rejected clergyman may appeal to the bench of bishops of the province against such rejection, and if two-thirds of the members of the bench disagree with the bishop's decision, institution is to be given. The bishop may appoint a commission of inquiry (one clergyman and two laymen) from the assessors of the bishop's court in any case of unfitness through age, infirmity, or other cause not relating to doctrine or ritual. If they report that circumstances exist which render removal expedient, the incumbent must go if so required by the bishop.

Finally, in the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States, the lay officers (the two wardens and a dozen or less vestrymen) of a parish nominate the incumbent after consultation with the bishop. The bishop's power is often confined to advice and to vetoing the call of one who is not in good and regular standing. "A pastoral connection may be severed with the consent of the rector, or on appeal to the decision of the bishop. The bishop may ask the advice of the standing committee of the diocese in deciding the question."

Thus it will be seen that in these other branches of the Church the congregation has a greater share in the choice of incumbent than in this country. Probably, the settlement most in consonance with the history and traditions of the Established Church would be the introduction of the Irish system—a board of patronage in each diocese, and election of the incumbent to the vacant living by the board acting in conjunction with parish representatives. It appears necessary, however, to make more stringent reforms in the case of inefficient or unpopular clergy. In this respect it is essential to provide against the tyranny of parochial cliques. There must be reasonable security of tenure, and probably as satisfactory a system as any would be that obtaining in the West Indies, and previously described. The evil, under this system, would have to be serious and well founded before the incumbent could be removed. He would be amply protected against frivolous and malicious intrigue, but the

congregation would obtain a remedy it does not at present possess in the case of a lazy, or inefficient, or justly unpopular parson.

To carry out these reforms the abolition of private patronage would be necessary, and the Church of England would be faced with the same situation as that confronting the Established Church of Scotland after the secession of 1843. The original bone of contention in that case was removed by the Church Patronage Act of 1874, which formally "declared all rights of appointment to be vested in the congregations of vacant churches and parishes, subject to Regulations of General Assembly, and provided for the compensation of private patrons." The principles of this Act might well be followed in the case of the Church of England.

These reforms I regard as essential to any system for promoting a real spirit of independence in the Church. Without them these Parochial Councils, excellent in theory, will in many cases be lethargic and ineffective. Reasonable freedom in the choice of an incumbent, and power to secure his removal in the event of just cause are very necessary precedents to the efficient employment of the various functions entrusted to the Councils.

When we come to consider these other functions, there is one which appears to call for criticism—the authority granted to the Parochial Council to levy a voluntary church rate. The rate is inherent in the history and custom of the Church. It is nevertheless, I am convinced, a false principle. Many church-people complain of the comparative poverty of their parish collections, and this is largely due to the working of this system. There is a big tendency in human nature to be satisfied with bare legal requirements, and if it is authoritatively laid down that good churchmen should contribute at a certain fixed figure there is a strong temptation for contributors to regard that figure as a maximum. They are loyally satisfying the requirements of their Church if they contribute that figure, and there is no inducement for them to give more. Leave contributions, however, absolutely unfixed, and merely appeal to the generosity of the congregation, and a hearty response is obtained. This has been the invariable experience of the free churches, and the Established Church might well take a leaf out of their book.

On the important question as to the position of the incumbent in relation to the Parochial Council the Committee apparently has been unable to come to any decision. There are, however, attached to the Report valuable memoranda on the subject by Lord Hugh Cecil, Lord Parmoor, and the Bishop of Oxford. Lord Hugh Cecil declares uncompromisingly for the exclusion of the clergy, save in an advisory capacity, whilst Lord Parmoor

argues in the opposite sense. The Bishop of Oxford steers a middle course, and on a consideration of the arguments I am inclined to his opinion :

That every Parish Church Council should have a lay vice-chairman elected by itself, whose duty it should be, during the vacancy of the benefice or at any other time on the request of two members of the Council, to summon a meeting of the lay members of the Council, and that . . . this meeting should have all the rights of the whole Council.

For ordinary purposes it seems essential that the incumbent should act as chairman, but obviously if his own position or conduct were under discussion the meeting should be untrammelled by his presence.

I will now turn to the proposals relating to the ruri-decanal and Diocesan Conferences. The Report on the Representation of the Laity, adopted in the main by the Committee, suggests that the annual Parochial Church Meeting should elect parish representatives to the Ruri-decanal Conference, "and, when the Diocesan Conference so determines, to the Diocesan Conference," in addition to the members of the Parochial Council. The Committee, in my opinion, rightly, prefers the method of indirect election to the two superior Assemblies. They are clearly of opinion that better representatives would be secured for the Ruri-decanal and Diocesan Conferences by entrusting the election to the Parochial Church Councils rather than to the Parochial Church Meetings.* The Parochial Church Council would be able to keep in touch with its representatives, to consult with them about matters with which the higher Councils would have to deal, and to receive reports from them as to the work done in these bodies. In this way the Parochial Church Council would, in their opinion, be kept in close connection with the whole course of Church legislation, and be helped to realise its responsibility for the general welfare of the Church as well as for specifically parochial matters.

With a view, moreover, to strengthening the representative character of the Diocesan Conferences, the Committee proposes that a certain number of wage-earners' representatives—not less than 5 per cent. of the lay members of each conference—should be selected by the committee of each Diocesan Conference as members of the Conference, and that provision should also be made for the representation of universities, university colleges, and the staffs of schools situated in each diocese. Both these classes of special representatives should be equally eligible with the other members of the Diocesan Conferences for election to the Representative Church Council. This appears to be an

* In large dioceses the Committee advises that members of the Diocesan Conference should be chosen by the various Ruri-decanal Conferences.

excellent scheme, since, as the Report points out, under existing conditions neither wage-earners nor students would by the normal method of election be properly represented in the Councils of the Church, and special measures therefore appear necessary to secure this object.

Such is the machinery suggested for the local government of the Church. The general principle of the system appears well designed, and capable of smooth and efficient working. In some few details, as I have attempted to show, the mechanism is perhaps open to improvement. Indeed, it appears essential, in order to attain full driving power, to recast the existing wheel of patronage, and the lack of plans in this respect is the most serious defect in this part of the Report. Undoubtedly, however, the scheme, even in its present form, is preferable to the present archaic system, and in default of such an amendment should be adopted. The new machinery once installed could doubtless undergo further improvement later should this be found necessary.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

(To be continued.)

SPORT IN EAST AFRICA

THERE has naturally been a considerable decrease in the number of game licences issued in the East Africa Protectorate, more particularly in sportsmen's and travellers' licences. Game, however, in the Northern Reserve is plentiful, including elephant, rhinoceros, and buffalo, and it appears from reports from the district officers in the Northern Frontier District that rhinoceros are so numerous as to constitute a nuisance. The Southern Reserve has unfortunately been the theatre of military operations, and since the beginning of the war numbers of troops have been stationed in it. A certain amount of game has necessarily been shot for food, but it is not considered that the amount of game that has been or is likely to be killed will make any difference in future years. The most noteworthy point in regard to this reserve is the number of elephants that have been seen in the Matapato country and within a comparatively short distance of Kiu. This might perhaps be due to their having been disturbed in the Tsavo district, but from native reports it appears that they have been coming there in increasing numbers during the last few years. On the Loita plains and Southern Guaso Nyiro district a certain amount of game has doubtless been killed for food by intelligence posts on the border. Laikipia and the Northern country have had a complete rest, as also has the Tana River. In the Voi district there has been probably rather more shooting than usual, but little has been done on the Seringeti plains except possibly by Germans.

DECLINE OF GERMAN COMMERCIAL DOMINANCE IN THE 16TH CENTURY

SINCE the war we have been both astonished and shocked on discovering to what an extent German influence had penetrated the industrial systems of our own and other countries. It has all been accomplished too within quite recent years. But if we go back some centuries in European history we shall find that German traders, in the shape of the Hanseatic League, then exercised a large amount of control over the trade of the northern countries. The story of how Britain and Russia shook it off and supplanted the Germans in each other's markets is full of interest at the present time.

With England the mediæval Germans appear to have traded from quite early times, for we find an allusion to them in a law book of Ethelred II., written in 978. They are there spoken of as "the people of the Emperor in London," meaning the German merchants (called "traders of Almaine," i.e. *Allemagne*, Germany—in a charter of Henry III.). At that time the English are said to have obtained all the yew for their bows from Austria by way of Dantzic, an instance of national folly on a par with that of their twentieth century descendants, who likewise allowed themselves to become dependent on foreigners for articles vital to national security. At a later date the Hanseatic merchants rose to great wealth and importance in England, where they enjoyed special privileges. Their factory in London went by the name of the "Steelyard," from the great balance for the weighing of goods. Edward III. borrowed money from them for his French wars, and gave as security his crown and most valuable jewels which were long kept in pawn at Cologne.

But it was in Russia, at Novgorod, that the Hanseatic League had their greatest foreign settlement. The greater part of Russia in those days was under Tartar domination, but Novgorod, with the territory round it, formed an independent republic. It became the great centre of Baltic and Byzantine trade, the mart where traders exchanged wax, leather, skins, tallow and other

Russian products for the strong beer brewed in North Germany, with woollen and linen cloth, and metal work of various kinds.

In the fourteenth century the prosperity of the Hanseatic League must have reached its maximum, for soon afterwards it began to decline. For this there were various causes, most of them quite beyond the reach of human vision and control. The age was one pregnant with great events, by many of which the Hanseatic League was hardly hit. Who could have foreseen the extinction of their Baltic fishing industry by the exodus of the fish at the commencement of the fifteenth century; or that at its close the old trade routes would become but mere by-ways of commerce by the opening up of the new ocean highways to India and the New World? No one anticipated the revolution in the religion of ages which took place in the early part of the next century and lessened the demand for some of the principal commodities in which they traded, such as fish and wax candles. The English had so long patiently accepted the commercial dominance of the League that it was never dreamed they would not acquiesce in it for ever.

Not less unexpected was the blow which deprived the Hanse merchants of their power and influence in Russia, who, under her vigorous ruler Ivan IV. in 1462, suddenly and mightily asserted herself, and shook off the Tartar dominance to which she had been subjected for centuries. The triumph of Ivan spelt doom to the independence of Novgorod. In 1481 it was captured by Ivan, many of its wealthy merchants were put to death, its inhabitants transported, and its markets pillaged, and German commercial supremacy was brought to a sudden and complete termination.

It is interesting to observe that about the same time the mediæval Germans lost both their political and their commercial importance, the fall of the Teutonic knights synchronising with that of the Hanseatic League. It may be noted further that the decline of the Germans coincided with the rise of Russia, which was to some extent at their expense; a share of the provinces and trade which had formerly belonged to the knights and League respectively falling to the Russians. During all the centuries that had gone before Russia had been a sort of backwoods to Europe, outside of and beyond the sphere of social and political life in which the other nations moved, something vast, unexplored and uncivilised. It is only very rarely that her name occurs in the history of those times; and then it appears as that of an outsider, an alien to the commonwealth of Europe, like the "barbarian" to the Ancient Greek. Primitive conditions lasted there till the close of the fifteenth century, when she succeeded in shaking off Tartar domination, evolving an elementary

sort of national unity, and began to share in the general life of Europe.

Of England's trade in the sixteenth century it seems to have been decreed that it must increase with Russia and decrease with Germany. "The discovery of Russia by the English," to use Milton's happy phrase, arose out of that passion for exploration and discovery by which the men of that generation were carried away. The honour belongs to one Richard Chancellor, who commanded a ship in Sir H. Willoughby's expedition which tried to discover a north-east passage to the East. Willoughby's own ship came to grief and was lost with all on board, but Chancellor's reached the port of St. Nicholas, now known as Archangel, by means of which his countrymen afterwards did a trade with Russia. Such is the story of the first Englishman who discovered and used this port, now of incalculable value to us as being one of the few openings available for supplying Russia with the munitions which she so sorely needs.

Chancellor discovered that St. Nicholas was in the dominions of one Ivan IV., who styled himself Czar of Muscovy. For the lords of Russia, on the fall of Constantinople, had assumed the title and arms of the Byzantine Empire, which they thereby seemed to imply had in their persons risen phoenix-like from its ashes. The character of this Ivan was a strange mixture of barbarity and enlightenment. In his government he displayed the qualities of a strong and able but cruel and arbitrary tyrant. The darker aspect of his character is illustrated by the following passage from Hakluyt, giving a list of the favours granted to an English ambassador. "Leave for Richard Transham, an Englishman, the Czar's apothecary, to go home with his wife and property; the same permission to Richard Elmes, a surgeon, and to Jane Richards, the widow of Bommell, a Dutch physician who was roasted to death in the city of Moscow in 1597." Cruel and barbarous, he was nevertheless attracted by certain aspects of Christian civilisation, and wise enough to appreciate the advantages of peaceful commerce. He looked to the English to bring him these, and accordingly welcomed them in his country and encouraged them to trade with his people. He is said to have granted English traders special privileges in his dominions, to have procured workmen and artists from their country, and even expressed a warm desire to wed an English lady from the number of the Queen's kinswomen.

A notable feature of those times was the rise of Companies of Merchant Venturers, as they styled themselves, to regulate and control the rapidly swelling volume of foreign trade which was bursting open new channels for itself in all directions. Of these the East India Company was the most famous, but not the first.

The Russian Company, which received its charter in 1554, the year after Chancellor's "discovery of Russia," was among those which sprang into existence before it. The Tudor régime ever smiled encouragingly on adventurers and never stinted its sympathy, and no less distinguished personages than the lord treasurer, lord privy seal, lord steward, and the lord high admiral were at the head of the first company formed for trading with Russia.

Of those who followed in the wake of Chancellor the most distinguished was Antony Jenkinson. His career was typical of a generation that stands out from all others for its love of adventure and passion for discovery. Thirty years of his life were devoted to their gratification, and when we take into account the very limited knowledge which men then possessed of either geography or foreign languages, it requires an effort to credit the extent of his travels, which ranged from Algiers to North Russia, from London by Moscow to Persia, and through that country to Bokhara on the Sogd and those regions round the Caspian Sea that Ivan had only recently conquered from the Mohammedans.

The important and varied character of our trade with Russia in the sixteenth century is astonishing when we consider the short period within which it was built up, and speaks volumes for the energy and enterprise of our forefathers. In these respects it is both an example and an incentive to us. A list of some of the commodities which England then obtained from Russia may be of interest. "Russia," says Froude, "gave its ermines and sables, its wolf and bear skins, its tallow, flax, and hemp, its steel and iron, its ropes, cables, pitch, tar, masts for ships, and even deal boards."

It must not be supposed that the Hanseatic League submitted passively to the unkind blows of Fate, that they did not struggle against the adverse circumstances of the time, nor strive hard to arrest the decline in their trade with England and Russia. We may rest assured that all that men could do they did. What is more, we have evidence that their efforts were sometimes attended with success, as when "a colony of three hundred men of useful and even refined occupation" were prevented "by the jealousy of mean monopolists in the Hanse Towns from embarking for Muscovy in quest of fortune." But the tendencies of the age were all against them, and to these in the end they had to succumb.

Such is the story of the decline of German commercial dominance in a former age. We have seen how at length Russia violently shook it off, and how under the Tudors English trade wonderfully revived. We have been privileged to behold Russia's birth as a European State, and observed how both she and

England waxed in political and commercial importance, and how the Germans suffered in consequence of the intercourse that sprang up between them. And we earnestly pray that in these matters history may repeat itself in our own day.

D. A. E. VEAL.

FLYING SERVICE

UP in the air, in the circling sky,
Here alone am I
Over the sun-lit clouds to fly,
My engine, wings, and I.
Far below is the warring earth,
High in heaven the sun:
In a new world I have made my birth,
A world where is only one.

Down! Through the clouds to the old, old world
That is boiling with life and death!
The shrapnel-smoke like wool is curled;
I am chilled with an icy breath,
As the air-plane rocks, and the air-plane rolls,
And the screaming shells explode:
Their bullets fly like new-loosed souls
To show me the lonely road.

Death is sure if they strike me here;
Death is sure below;
Death in the clouds is very near—
But I have seen! I know!—
Back through the teeth of death we tell
Our tale to the circling sky:
We have saved a brigade from their tangled hell,
My engine, wings, and I.

GEORGE BIDDER.

ZULULAND SUGAR

It is springtime in South Africa and I am in Durban. The military world is busiest here. Converted prizes carry the war stores, and fresh levies of Anzacs come and go. At 7 a.m. I take the Zululand train and soon find myself in a broken country, which introduces me to sugar-cane, with now and then a hill and brake of woods, a sugar factory, and then, great fields of cane. There are oranges on trees, dried and yellow from drought, but cane predominates. Slowly the train moves along until the Tugela river is crossed, and then Zululand, bringing back memories of Isandhlwana and Rorke's Drift, the gallant ride of Melville and Colville, and the vanishing fortunes of the Napoleons, when their last hopes were shattered by a Zulu assegai.

To-day Zululand has become an object-lesson to older parts of the Union. Here miles upon miles of undulating greenness roll out, and all the acres of Yuba cane bespeak but peace and plenty. Trains are laden with cane, wagons drag cane, coolies bending with short broad knives silently slay it at its base, and brown Zulus munch it between their white teeth. Then, through scents of treacle and sugar, the train took me to my destination, at Empangeni, where I was met by my old friend George Armstrong, the Managing Director of the Zululand Sugar Milling Company. It was my pleasure to inspect the modern sugar plant, which had been built up through his energy and then directed by him; for when the Government granted a number of 300 acre farms to settlers, upon condition that they should reside and work them, George Armstrong conceived the idea of erecting a factory for them, and as soon as his agreement was concluded, his friends provided the money, and there stands the factory. The usual trainload of difficulties off-loaded with the machinery, but after three years they were overcome; and to-day settlers, Government, shareholders and employees are all satisfied with the results of the efforts of the man who devoted himself unceasingly to their interests, and has, as the Canadians say, "made good."

It is indeed a keynote in industrial progress to find so young

a concern able to pay £8,000 in excise and £3,000 in Income Tax per annum, and with the present great demand for sugar it points to the possibility of developing further stretches, which should give employment to those who are seeking an outlet for their capital and energies. Sugar factories are costly things, and although there are still some 200 miles of country in Zululand to exploit, yet it may pay to wait until manufacturing conditions are more normal in Europe, but when the time arrives, this Zululand factory may serve as a model for future enterprises. The wonderful economies of a sugar mill have to be seen to be understood. Seemingly, there is no waste, the very treacle mixes itself up with the pith of cane, and in a whirling blast it flames into the furnace and lends the force that turns the toothed wheels that relentlessly crush the tons which come automatically to them; the stream of juice pours its great volume into vats, and then, wending its way from vat to filter, it is shaken and sifted, and eventually emerges in crystals of sugar, which restlessly pour into open-mouthed pockets stamped with the company's brand, and these, neatly sewed, fall through a chute and fill the trucks that bear the sugar to the ever waiting world.

And from those fields I saw the spots where Zulu chiefs were resting in everlasting sleep. Against those hills once stood Cetewayo's great military camp, with its host of warriors and white oxen, that awed the fearsome savages of its day. The thunderous stamp of their feet, the deep war cry that rent the air, are past. The earth will tremble no more to the unison of their tramp. Song and war dance, warrior and cattle are gone, and green verdure mantles the scene.

Along these hills the settlers grow the cane, and though their harvest is ripe, the men who planted many a field are seven thousand miles away fighting for king and country. Many a lad cheated the vet. to get through, but to their everlasting glory they left their fortunes in the veld and simulated that health that was necessary to carry them through, and whilst the cane is borne to the mill, the world will read their story, and as the teaspoon turns the tiny crystals, it may perhaps think of them and Zululand sugar.

W. P. TAYLOR.

NAMELESS HEROES

BRAVE men go to the front ;
Homage is paid to some ;
Others, who battle's brunt
Have borne—in death pass home :
These are the unmarked ones
Laid in a nameless grave ;
Heroes who manned the guns ;
Men who their life-blood gave !

No deed of valour done
Clings to their memory now ;
No cross of victory won ;
No laurels upon their brow :
Only in Honour's Roll
That they in action fell ;
This, the recording scroll—
They did their duty well.

While we the living laud,
What is their share of Fame ?
Save that before their God
Their's is the martyr's name :
Battle's smoke wove them a pall ;
Cannon their requiem sang,
And we revere them all
For whom the last post rang.

Half-mast in hearts at home
Droops the banner of Love ;
Half-mast o'er tower and foam
Limp hangs the flag above :

Sad sigh the tattered leaves
Left from the storm of fire,
And the whole Nation grieves
For them, in burgh and shire.

Honour! where it is due;
'Tis what their memories crave—
Britons, who, tried and true,
Sleep in the warriors' grave:
Yielding to God their breath
Out on the lead-swept plain,
Their's a triumphant death
'Mongst the heroic slain!

Empire! its life-blood shed!
Britons! each life laid down!
"Faithful to death," they said—
What better cause and crown?
Then, 'mid the Nation's woe
Must our thanksgiving rise,
Nobly they fell, we know;
Willing—their sacrifice!

ALFRED SMYTHE.

CANADA AND THE NAVY

WORK is proceeding rapidly with the recruiting of the 5,000 men who are to be raised in Canada for the Dominion's Naval Overseas Division. Recruiting offices have been opened in the various provinces. In British Columbia the work will be done by the Naval officers at Esquimalt. All recruits, as soon as they are enrolled, will be sent to a naval barracks in England for training. They will travel overseas as ordinary seamen, and those wishing to serve in the stoking ratings will be entitled to volunteer for such service. The question of their advancement to higher ratings will be left in the hands of the Lords Commissioners of the British Admiralty. The force will be as distinctly Canadian as the Expeditionary Force. There will be Canadian rate of pay, Canadian separation allowance and assistance from the Canadian Patriotic Fund, and the sailors from the Dominion will wear a special Canadian badge in whichever unit of the Navy they are serving.

EMPIRE TRADE NOTES

CANADA

THE settlement of Western Canada proceeds apace. During the month of September 1,035 free homesteads of 160 acres each were taken up. Of these 215 were in the Province of Manitoba, 397 in Saskatchewan, 384 in Alberta and 39 in British Columbia. The total acreage thus given away by the Canadian Lands Department was 165,600—an area considerably larger than the county of Flint. Of the settlers taking up this free land 155 were from the United States and 220 from the British Isles. Others originally came from countries so far apart as the West Indies, Greece and Roumania. During the nine months ended September 30th there were 10,149 free land grants of 160 acres each thus taken up, the area representing a total of 1,623,840 acres, or equivalent to nearly one third the area of Wales. These figures are the more remarkable when considered in conjunction with the fact that at the present time Canada has under arms nearly 400,000 men, largely recruited from the class who under normal conditions would become "homesteaders."

THE conditions of and prospects for fruit growing in Northern Ontario have been carefully investigated, and as it was found to be extremely important that varieties for the northern districts should be capable of withstanding winter conditions, the Canadian Department of Horticulture is engaged in attempting to breed varieties of suitable hardiness. Through the co-operation of V. M. Sevitch, Chief Specialist in Plant Breeding of the Imperial Russian Department of Agriculture, a considerable quantity of seed of the hardiest desirable varieties of Russian apples and pears was secured, and some 5,000 seedlings successfully grown. Some of these should be worthy of distribution in the colder regions of Ontario, and they should also be of value in further breeding work. The Department is also endeavouring by hybridisation to secure better varieties of hardy plums and cherries for the northern country.

AT Gilbert Plains a farmer has sold a car of No. 1 wheat, receiving what is believed to be the largest individual cheque ever paid in Canada for a single car of grain (1,000 bushels), the amount being equivalent to £409.

RESOLUTIONS have been passed by the women's organisations in Toronto in favour of buying toys made in Canada, and establishing on a per-

manent basis a toy industry in the Dominion. In 1913 Germany exported £4,920,000 worth of toys; Austria-Hungary £270,000, making a total of £5,190,000. To Canada Germany sent toys valued at £116,000. German toys found their way all over the world, and it is therefore a matter of loyalty to preach the doctrine of the made-in-Canada toy, with its maple leaf stamp, as well as a matter of economic necessity. Canada offers a good market for toys, and it has the advantage of being a market that steadily increases with the demand from a rapidly growing population. Moreover, toy-making looms largely at present in the eyes of those who are striving to solve the problem of the maimed soldier. Rural industries are not so well known in Canada as they are in some other parts of the world, and it has been suggested that herein lies a source of profitable and interesting occupation for the winter evenings on the quiet and perhaps isolated homestead.

MUCH development work is being done along the line of the Canadian Northern Railway in British Columbia. Three hundred carloads of hay have recently been shipped from the Louis Creek district. At Barriere a New Westminster company intends to erect a lumber mill, and a station is being constructed at Mount Olive where a large saw mill is in operation. Another lumber mill is being started at Avola, and there is now a shingle mill at Blue River. From Chu Chua there has been shipped from a copper property ore which yielded £700 net, and from McAbee ranch a clip of 3,000 sheep representing a weight of 27,000 lbs.

CHROME (or chromite) mining in the Province of Quebec has been revived through the exigencies of war. Promising deposits are known to exist at many places in the Serpentine Belt of Southern Quebec, and merely await transportation facilities and favourable market conditions to bring them into use. Increased demand and very limited supply have greatly increased prices with the result that 14,076 tons valued at \$221,287 were produced against shipments valued at only \$1,210 in 1914. Chromite, or chromic iron, is an oxide of chromium and iron, which is valuable, not as an ore of iron, but chiefly for its content of chromium, an element used in certain important chemical and metallurgical processes.

THE Dominion Geological Department has instituted a thorough investigation of the resources of Northern Alberta in potash, and has arranged for the supervision of the work of exploring parties in the oil field. Samples of brine will be analysed for traces of potash. The field for exploration will be defined with a certain degree of accuracy, and some idea of the resources of the north country ascertained. It is the opinion of the Geological Department that the region is very rich in oil belts.

THE record that Manitoba established last year as an exporter of butter has been well maintained. In five months thirty-one carloads of creamery butter were sent out of the province. These averaged 400 boxes or a little more per car, each box containing 56 lbs., making 700,000 lbs. in all. These figures, large as they are, would have

been considerably increased were it not for the large consignments going regularly to Camp Hughes. Most of the export shipments have gone to Montreal. Very gratifying reports regarding the improved quality of the butter shipped from Manitoba have been received by the Dairy Commissioner. The province has excellent pasturage, and with the heavy corn yields and abundant hay cut, the output of butter for the remainder of the year should be large.

ENQUIRIES are being made in Canada as to whether Canadian firms are desirous of exporting goods direct to those Pacific Islands that were formerly German colonies, but are now occupied by Australia. These Pacific Islands, which were taken from Germany in the first two months of the war by the Australians and Japanese, comprise groups of small islands formerly called Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, Bismarck Archipelago and the Caroline, Pelew, Marianne and Marshall Islands. Needless to say, some of them are likely to be known in future by other names. They promise quite a good market for some of Canada's productions.

THE establishment in Ontario of a chemical plant for the manufacture primarily of dye stuffs and kindred products, and, while the demand exists, of high explosives, is now under consideration in Toronto. The plant is intended not only to supply the home demand for dye stuffs, which is becoming fairly considerable, but to secure the dye trade of all the British possessions which Germany virtually monopolised before the war. In Ontario the chief raw materials of the dye industry, such as salt, crude oil, cheap power and iron and copper pyrites, are easily available, and it is also pointed out by those interested in the project that, as in the case of Germany every dye factory became a plant for the manufacture of explosives on the day of declaration of war, the establishment of a dye industry in Ontario has a national significance. The ordinary processes of a dye factory produce picric acid, tri-nitro-toluol and other necessities of modern warfare, and such an industry would prove an adjunct to many other branches of manufacture, such as paper making, paint making, and leather tanning.

"THE demand for horses is increasing and will continue to increase long after peace has been declared," says a correspondent writing in the 'Canadian Live Stock Record.' "If Canada is to take advantage of the situation the time to start in is now. There will be an assured market demand for foals at weaning time from mares bred now. Not only has the wastage by reason of war been enormous, but in all the belligerent countries, not omitting Great Britain, there has either been a partial stoppage or a complete stoppage of breeding by reason of the scarcity of labour, the disturbed conditions, or entire devastation. Whether the war lasts long or ceases there must continue an undiminished demand for horses. When peace comes there will be a long period of replenishment. Then quality, as much as, and even more than, quantity, will be required. Hence the evident call to every farmer is to breed, and to breed to the best available."

THE Canadian Trade Commissioner at Petrograd, Russia, reports that

steps are being taken to organise a combined leather selling agency for Russia which will deal only in leathers produced in the countries allied with Russia in the present war. Plans are being formed for business after the war, and it is hoped that a substantial portion of the leather trade, which was formerly controlled by German manufacturers, will be secured. The agency will have branches in four or five of the leading centres in Russia. It is desired to add leading Canadian leather manufacturers to the list of firms supporting the selling agency.

MANUFACTURERS in Canada are devoting a good deal of attention to export possibilities. War conditions have considerably increased the Dominion's foreign trade, and with the connections now made with firms in various parts of the world, it is felt that Canada has a good opportunity to hold this trade after the war. During the past two years associations have been formed to promote export trade, and through these associations war contracts with France, Russia and Italy have been obtained by Canadian firms. The formation of an export company has also been announced in connection with the pulp and paper industry, and the millers of Ontario wheat have a similar project under discussion. Such combination is essential in Canada, for, as yet, only a limited number of industrial concerns are in a position to undertake the work of establishing foreign connections individually.

THE Copper Mining industry of the Province of Quebec showed considerable improvement during 1915, in fact, shipments were the highest ever made. There was a great demand for ores both for the manufacture of sulphuric acid and for copper contents, the total production in 1915 being 142,769 tons valued at \$1,020,605 against a value in 1914 of \$801,129.

CANADIAN shipyards are busier at the present time than at any time since wooden ships passed out of existence. In Nova Scotia the Nova Scotia Steel and Coal Company is building steel ships for its own carrying trade. In British Columbia wooden ships are being constructed, while on the Great Lakes the plants at port Arthur, Collingwood and Toronto are all working to capacity.

THE war has made heavy demands on many natural products, but on none more than on the timber supplies of the world. Canada is possessed of enormous reserves of this product which is steadily becoming more valuable, but its export is at present curtailed by scarcity of shipping. The merchantable timber of Canada is distributed by millions of acres, as follows:—Nova Scotia, 5,000,000; New Brunswick, 9,000,000; Quebec, 100,000,000; Ontario, 70,000,000; North West Provinces, 11,000,000; British Columbia, 30,000,000. Between 200,000,000 and 300,000,000 acres it is estimated are covered by timber of commercial size.

MILLING companies during the twelve months ended 30th August, their financial year, have done an abnormal trade, the output being 30 per cent. greater than in the previous year, and the major part being exported. For the twelve months ended May 31st, the latest period for which returns are available, exports of flour amounted to 6,764,583

barrels. The excellent quality of last year's crop made the surplus wheat readily marketable. In addition, an unusually large proportion of the crop was handled by the Canadian millers with a resulting benefit to local industries, and the additional quantity of subsidiary products was readily absorbed by the home market. There has been an annual increase in the volume of foreign business transacted by the Canadian mills in spite of variations in the amount of the crop and the wheat exported.

A VALUABLE copper "strike" is reported from Little Bay, a small settlement situated on Notre Dame Bay, about 200 miles north of St. John's, Newfoundland. Little Bay was formerly a large mining settlement, and a copper mine was operated there from 1878 to the late nineties. The new "find" is situated in "Sleepy Hollow" at a short distance from the old mine. A vein estimated at 2,000 feet long has been uncovered. Assays made on the ground are reported to show rich veins from one to two feet wide, running as high as $29\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Several tons have already been taken out, and more machinery for development work is being secured. Little Bay is about 15 miles to the south-west of Tilt Cove where copper mining was carried on from 1864 to a recent date. For the past few years Tilt Cove has been dormant and very little ore has been exported. During the years of operation more than 1,500,000 tons of ore, regulus and ingot copper, were exported. The quality of the ore found in these areas according to experts is a good yellow sulphuret, free from arsenic or any other undesirable ingredient, and containing a high percentage of copper.

ONE of the most valuable discoveries in the territory now being opened up by the Pacific Great Eastern Railway has been that of a large deposit of fine quality diatomaceous earth at Quesnel, British Columbia. The particular uses of this infusorial earth are manifold. Owing to its porous nature it has been used as a holder of nitro-glycerine in the manufacture of dynamite. In some countries it is used in the preparation of artificial fertilisers, in the manufacture of water glass, of various cements, glazing for tiles, artificial stone, ultramarine and various pigments and colours for paper, Swedish matches and a variety of other objects, and there is a large and steadily growing demand for it. Another important use of this earth is for insulation in electrical transmission.

DURING the next two years there will be a number of interesting anniversaries in Canada. It was in 1617 that Louis Hebert, the first Canadian farmer, arrived from France, and commenced to clear the ground for his garden on the site of what is now the Upper Town of Quebec, and to sow his first crops. The tercentenary of the first Canadian farmer is one that the country can well afford to honour, for he pointed the way to that particular source of national wealth in Canada which is at the base of the country's prosperity. Exactly 200 years later, in 1817, the first Canadian bank—the Bank of Montreal—was established, while the opening of the Quebec Bank occurred in 1818.

THE coast of British Columbia presents an ideal field for the prosecution of a great fishing industry in all its branches. It is in-

dented by innumerable bays, sounds and inlets, so that the actual mainland shore line, not including Vancouver Island and the Queen Charlotte Islands, exceeds 7,000 miles. This vast extent of water is alive with numerous varieties of fish, but until recently commercial fishing has been practically confined to salmon. Whales are very plentiful along the coast and in the Behring Sea, and a whaling company operating several steam whaling ships on the west coast is doing a profitable business. There are many sea products which might be turned to account with advantage. Very little has been done in the minor branches of the fishing industry, but there is little doubt that the canning of crabs, clams, sardines, smelts, prawns, shrimps, etc., could be made to pay well while giving employment to a large number of people.

THE Canadian Pacific Railway Company has prepared plans for wharves which they intend to construct at Vancouver, British Columbia, at a cost of £300,000. The plans are in connection with those which the city corporation intends to carry out at the port. Vancouver will expend one million sterling on wharf extension in the immediate future.

PRICES of raw and of partly manufactured materials for paper-making are very much higher than they were a year ago, while the most important factor in the increased cost of pulp is the increase in the cost of labour; the difficulty in procuring chemicals is also a contributory item. Contracts made during the early part of the year or previously are being filled, but there is a decided reluctance to contract far ahead. The new mills planned and in course of construction, and the extension to existing mills will, if carried out as intended, add a per-diem capacity of 840 tons of news-print before the end of 1918. During the twelve months ending March last the amount of printing paper exported was 463,204 tons, or at the rate of 1,544 tons per day, as compared with a tonnage of 292,579 or 975 tons per day in the corresponding period ending March, 1914.

A CANADIAN farmer engaged in mixed farming in Alberta gives some interesting facts as to the conditions and progress of this branch of farming. Although the winter months are extremely cold, little shelter is provided, and in some cases none at all, for most of the stock. Practically all the stock is able to forage throughout the winter, but considerable hay has to be put up for the sheep, and, on ranches where there is a flock of good size, from 100 to 150 tons of hay are kept to feed them through the months from October till March. Horses, which are being bred more extensively than before in Alberta, are allowed to graze out all winter and do very well on what they can find, although they are now kept fenced in. Wool prices have gone up, raw material selling well, the sheep raisers selling their wool mostly to local shippers. Mutton and pork are also bringing enhanced returns.

THE Director of Agriculture for Ontario, giving evidence before the Dominions Royal Commission, stated that there is a total fruit acreage in Ontario of 330,340, of which 298,627 acres are orchard, 10,850 vine-

yard, and 23,863 for small fruits. Apple trees easily predominate, there being no fewer than 6,710,033 in bearing and 2,073,576 non-bearing. Peach trees number 794,192, whilst pears are the lowest, 505,368. The acreage of peaches in Ontario had increased by 31 per cent. in the ten years period 1901-11. Cherries showed an increase of 21 per cent. Seventy-five per cent. of the fruit grown in all Canada is produced in Ontario, but fruit growing in this province is the smallest part of the agricultural industry, its annual value being \$20,000,000 and entire capital invested \$80,000,000.

In an attempt to stop the drain on the cattle industry, caused by the shipment of heifers and cows from Saskatchewan points, the live stock branch of the Saskatchewan Department of Agriculture has sent an expert cattle man to Winnipeg specially to see that Saskatchewan farmers placing orders for carloads of heifers get good value for their money and the kind of stock that will give the best results. Hundreds of Saskatchewan farmers, who are in a position to buy good grade heifers to start a herd of cattle, want them but are unable to find them, while other farmers in the stock-raising districts have more than they need, and are shipping them to Winnipeg markets, where the best of them are sold to dealers from the States to make up breeding herds. The Department of Agriculture is endeavouring to keep the bulk of this stock in Saskatchewan; and with this end in view, has placed its representative in the Winnipeg stock yards solely in order that Saskatchewan farmers may have the benefit of his knowledge and judgment in buying cattle. His services are free to all applicants. All arrangements for financing must be made between buyer and banker.

BESIDES financing her share in the war Canada is finding money for the arts of peace. The allotments to the different Canadian provinces under the Agricultural Instruction Act, passed by the Dominion Parliament in 1913, have now been made for the year ending March 31, 1917. By the terms of this Act two millions sterling, stretching over a period of ten years, is to be divided among the nine provinces of the Dominion, according to population, for the encouragement of agriculture and domestic science. In the initiatory year, 1913-1914, £140,000 was divided. Each year the amount is to be increased by £20,000 until 1917-1918, when the grants under this arrangement will have reached a total of £220,000, at which they are to remain until 1923, when the two millions sterling will become exhausted. By the aid of these grants agricultural education and domestic science have been considerably advanced and extended throughout the Dominion, school buildings increased in number, experienced teachers of a high class engaged and district representative and country agents' expenses met. Demonstrations in all branches of agriculture and short courses have been liberally arranged, agricultural instruction in both public and high schools has been extensively promoted, much useful literature has been circulated, veterinary science has been benefited, knowledge and the practice of domestic science extended. Manual training has received an impetus, competitions of many varieties helped forward and initiated, and school

and home gardening have been greatly developed. In short, the beneficial influence of the Act is making itself felt in every department of agriculture and home making.

SOUTH AFRICA

THERE are two large cement works in the Union—the Pretoria Portland Cement Company and White's South African Cement Company, which is operating on the Vaal River. The former Company is producing annually close upon half a million casks of manufactured cement, the raw material for which is drawn from the district of Pretoria, and its employees number about 400. In the making of cement between 200 and 300 tons of gypsum is used per month supplied by farmers, under small contracts of twenty to thirty tons per month in the Kimberley, Boshof and Greytown districts. Quite recently an excellent deposit of lime has been discovered near Mafeking, and the Company has now established works there. Within a very short time no cement need be imported into the Union from abroad.

For the past three years the Union of South Africa has produced annually approximately half a million pounds of seed cotton; of this amount there were about 170,000 lbs. of lint which has been sold on the English market at prices ranging from 6*d.* to 8*d.* per lb. and 330,000 lbs. of seed, but, until recently, there has only been a demand for the latter for re-seeding purposes. When the industry has made further progress seed-crushing plants will be established to work up the seed into by-products. The erection of these mills would naturally be of great assistance to the cotton industry, as it would establish a further source of revenue. The market for South African cotton is practically unlimited; there is a spinning mill in the Cape Peninsula now requiring approximately the whole output of the Union, 170,000 tons of lint annually, and as this industry grows, its requirements in the shape of raw material will likewise increase. European manufacturers, who are operating more than 100 spindles, also have difficulty at times in obtaining all the raw material they require. The cotton industry in South Africa may therefore be considered to have bright prospects, and certainly no other has greater possibilities. Once normal conditions are restored, it should make steady progress, until cotton becomes one of the big agricultural products of the country.

GENERAL BOTHA, speaking recently at the annual congress of the South African Agricultural Union, stated that progress had been made in South Africa agriculturally, in some directions remarkable progress, as would be shown when the next census was taken. Their knowledge of stock diseases had advanced considerably during recent years, and for that they owed a debt of gratitude to their technical officers and investigators. He mentioned that thirty-one of the South African agricultural students who had been sent to Europe and America by the Government had returned, and there were now twenty-three studying, and he appealed to the well-to-do farmers to send their sons oversea in order

to obtain the best possible training. He also touched upon the improvement in the quality of wool exported and the big advance in the meat export trade. Great strides, he said, had been made in the dairy produce, and with regard to maize he considered it would be better for South Africa if it were not exported, but remained in the country for the purpose of feeding stock.

THE report of the Government Mining Engineer for 1915 shows the total mineral output for that year to have been £43,531,000, a decrease of approximately £1,800,000, but the drop is more than accounted for by the falling off of over £5,000,000 in the value of diamonds mined as a result of the war. The gold output increased by nearly three millions whilst the value of the output of copper, tin and asbestos, rose by approximately £400,000. With regard to labour almost 300,000 persons were employed in mines and "allied concerns," of these 30,000 were Europeans, an increase of over 2,500 compared with the preceding year. For the first time in the history of the Witwatersrand Gold Fields there has been more native labour than was required. During the year nearly £16,000,000 sterling was spent on salaries and wages, of which eighty-six per cent. was expended by the gold mining industry, but the circulation of this amount was only part of the benefit conferred upon the Union by the mining industry, as it is calculated that at least six and a quarter million sterling was spent by the mines on stores and machinery of South African production. Dividends, also, paid to South African shareholders must further increase the yearly total by a considerable amount.

THE total export of crayfish last year was 3,885,850 lbs., valued at £102,531, nearly a million pounds more than the previous year. The demand for this fish, which has already secured an excellent name for itself on the European market, is very great, and it is stated that double the quantity available could be disposed of. France is probably the largest customer, but England takes a fair proportion, and "Cape lobster" is found on sale in some of the smallest villages.

THE factories at present engaged in manufacturing jam are said to be capable of turning out more jam than is consumed in the whole of the Union. The great hope of the future is to open up an oversea trade. Something has already been done in this direction, and a Cape firm exported during the early part of the year half a million pounds of apricot jam for the use of the troops in Flanders.

THE production of beef cattle in South Africa is making great strides. In 1915 the country exported £116,000 worth of beef. Between April and September of this year the value of the export was a quarter of a million, whilst probably another £100,000 worth was in cold storage awaiting shipment. The future of the South African meat export trade formed the subject of an important discussion at the recent Agricultural Congress, and a series of resolutions was passed, including a suggestion that Government should send a commission of farmers to the principal exporting countries as a preliminary to the establishment of a suitable

organisation for dealing with the meat trade in the Union. The necessity for putting this trade on a firm foundation at the earliest possible moment was emphasised, the rapid increase of stocks making an outlet oversea imperative. The total head of cattle in the Union to-day is estimated at over eight millions.

An important gathering of farmers interested in wheat growing in the Union was held recently in Bloemfontein, when lectures on various aspects of this important industry were given by the Government experts. A big impetus has recently been given to wheat growing in South Africa, which is now producing, according to agricultural calculations, upwards of two-thirds its total requirements. The need for greater local production, however, is being severely felt by the milling industry, which, by reason of the Government controlled price of Australian wheat, is unable, under present circumstances, to successfully compete with flour from that country.

The latest available figures show that the Union produced in 1914, 10,682,008 lbs. of butter, valued at £712,133. The statistics for 1915 are now being collected; so far as they have been received they show a very much increased output. Cheese, during the season ending March, 1915, was produced to the extent of 605,686 lbs., valued at £25,236. Here, too, the indications point to a largely increased output. Bacon curing is being carried on as a business in many parts of the Union, and present difficulties in securing oversea supplies have led to a very largely increased output.

CROWN COLONIES

PRIOR to the outbreak of hostilities over 27 per cent. of vessels calling at Sierra Leone were German, and many of the British vessels which called were engaged in trade with German ports. The shortage of shipping due to the cessation of German oversea trade has been accentuated by the requirements of the Navy and Army, by abnormal shipping casualties, and by the internment of ships in enemy ports since the outbreak of war. German shipping entered in 1914 was over 19 per cent. of the total, while the United Kingdom shipping was 78 per cent. In 1915 the United Kingdom was responsible for 94 per cent., Germany's share being, of course, *nil*.

CONSIDERABLE interest is being shown by peasant proprietors in the Caicos Islands in connection with the cotton industry. Samples of the cleaned staple grown in these islands have been submitted to London brokers and favourably reported on. Except sponging, local industries have not been affected to any extent by the war, although the question of how to obtain tonnage to convey the salt produce of the dependency to northern markets during the coming year is causing grave concern. It is with the greatest difficulty that even an occasional vessel can now be obtained for the purpose at an advance of 400 per cent. on the usual rate of freight.

THE Government lime-juice factory in St. Lucia was completed and opened last year. The business is conducted on a co-operative basis. In determining the profits there is deducted from the amounts realised for the sale of produce the amounts paid for the purchase of limes and lime-juice, together with all expenses of working the factory and disposing of the produce, and, in addition, a sum equivalent to 10 per cent. of the amount paid for the purchase of limes and lime-juice. The remainder is regarded as gross profits to be divided, one-third being paid to the Government and two-thirds to the vendors of fruit and juice distributed by way of bonus, in proportion to the amounts paid to them for limes or lime-juice. The price paid for limes and lime-juice is based on a scale of prices having a relation to the value of concentrated juice, and insuring a safety margin of profit to the factory. The seller of fruit realises his full value when he gets his bonus derived from the share of profits.

ACCORDING to the most recent report of the Marine Products Board to the Bahamas, sponge farming is an unqualified success, and it is firmly believed that the Bahamas can easily make up the deficiency of wool sponge by this means. In three years at most medium sponge (the most merchantable size) can be produced, and the quantity is limited only by the number planted. The rate of growth is far in excess of that laid down by the American biologist, Dr. Moore, who averages the increase at eight inches per annum while the plant is under five years old. The report also points out that sponge culture is spreading throughout the islands of the Lesser Antilles, and if this Colony is to maintain its place as the chief sponge market in the world, it is imperative to enlarge the cultivations and stimulate the production of sponge plants.

THE British manufacturer must remember, in sending goods to the Gold Coast, that the conditions attending unshipment and transport to the interior render good and substantial packing imperative. All goods likely to be damaged by sea water or damp should be packed in tin lined cases or waterproof canvas; and all heavy goods in specially substantial crates, barrels, or boxes. It is also very necessary that goods intended for transport by porters to the interior should be packed in packages of not more than 60 lb. in weight.

MERCHANTS at the Gold Coast are unanimous in contrasting the British manufacturer unfavourably with his German rival in the matter of sending out samples. They say that the German samples were always put up in such a manner that all their merits, with prices and conditions of purchase, were set forth so clearly that they could be grasped without effort. The much greater readiness of the German manufacturer to carry out the wishes of the prospective purchaser in the matter of making slight alterations in his wares to meet local requirements is also a subject of frequent remark and is said to have helped the development of German trade in this Colony very considerably. These, of course, are small matters, but the British manufacturer should not ignore them. They represent very often the difference between success and failure when one has to compete with a capable and painstaking rival.

ANOTHER point that the British manufacturer should bear well in mind is that, while there are many wealthy people in the Colony who can, and do, buy goods of superior quality and finish, the great majority of the population are poor and can only afford to purchase low-priced articles. Nor have they had sufficient experience of European goods to know that it pays in the long run to purchase a good but expensive article in preference to one that is cheap and inferior. Gloss and glitter count for much, and attractive make-up greatly enhances the selling qualities of an article. It was by close attention to these details that the German manufacturer obtained such a hold on this market, and the British manufacturer will be well advised to follow his example.

IN spite of outside influences seeking to create disturbances within the Somaliland Protectorate, the friendly Somalis have remained quiet and loyal. The security of the caravan roads has been well maintained and crimes of violence in the interior are markedly on the decrease. Inter-tribal fighting has altogether ceased. Some progress has been made in administration, and the internal situation of the country may generally be regarded as satisfactory. The presence of the Field Force has created an abnormal demand in Aden for beef and mutton, and prices have risen accordingly. A profitable business, we learn from the reports for 1915-16, has been done in skins and hides; and more hides would have been exported had not the price for bullocks in Aden risen so high. Gums and resins were sold at twice or three times their usual price, while *ghee* (clarified butter), fibre, and fibre-rope usually exported were partly retained to meet the requirements of the Government or the Government contractor. Guano was not obtainable because Mait Island, where the manure is procured, was closed to the dhow traffic in connection with the political situation. The Arabs usually employed in the shark fishing industry did not visit the British ports, but engaged in the more lucrative carrying trade between the Red Sea ports, with the result that salt fish was not obtainable in Somaliland.

TITLES to Crown lands in Nigeria and Southern Provinces are issued in the form of leases, the conditions of which are governed by the purposes for which the land is required. Building leases are granted for trade and residence. The value of buildings to be erected is fixed in each case. If the buildings are to be substantial, a term up to sixty years is allowed. Building leases are auctioned, the bidding at present being on the yearly rental. An upset rental is fixed in each case, principally by reference to the value of similar sites in the neighbourhood. Rents are revisable every twenty years in the case of a long term and at lesser periods in the case of short terms. Leases of siding plots at railway stations are issued on special terms. The erection of a warehouse is required; the term does not usually exceed twenty-five years, and rent is revisable after ten years. Where Crown lands are wanted for agricultural purposes, the lessee is usually required to expend an amount equal to 5*s.* per acre of the area leased, and to bring the area under cultivation within a fixed time. The term allowed is up to forty-five years and rent is normally revisable every fifteen years. Leases of

native lands to others than natives of Nigeria are issued with the approval of the Governor on such conditions as the Governor may direct in each case.

FROM a financial point of view the year in Gibraltar has been a satisfactory one ; the revenue reached the high figure of £95,500, while the improvement in trade was maintained. The trade of Gibraltar is concerned mainly in forwarding to neighbouring Mediterranean ports, or to ports on the Atlantic coast of Morocco goods transhipped from ocean steamers. One effect of the war has been to encourage this trade, owing to the security of the Gibraltar route, and the fact that other rival routes have not been able to maintain the same facilities of transport. It is to be hoped that it may be possible to retain this advantage after the war, and that the capital expended on the extension of the wharf accommodation, and provision of equipment for landing cargo, will contribute towards this end.

IN Cyprus there has been a very marked increase in the cultivation of lucerne, the value of which is now generally recognised. The demand for seed is larger every year. The department has successfully grown broad red clover, sainfoin, and other trefoils in the Experimental Garden, Nicosia, and in some of the district nursery gardens, and so encouraging have been the results that it is intended to sow these on a larger scale next winter. Excellent results, too, have been obtained from the trial beds of Sudan and Teff grasses, which appear to be good drought resisters and should prove most useful for grazing or for hay. These will now be brought to the notice of cattle breeders.

A SUCCESSFUL effort was made to induce farmers to add rye to their list of corn crops. The need of enriching the variety and increasing the output of island-grown cereal crops has been brought home to all by the great demand for food-stuffs created by the war, a demand which will doubtless continue for some time to come. Several villages were canvassed by the department last autumn with a view to persuading them to try this new crop, and, in order to satisfy them as to its bread-making properties, sample loaves were made from rye flour and distributed among those farmers who showed a disposition to give the crop a trial. The rye was sown last winter in several villages under the direction of the Agricultural Department, and it is evident that the cultivation will be extended next season.

OVERSEA CORRESPONDENTS.

WAR ITEMS FROM OVERSEA

DURING the past month the Work Department of the Ontario Soldiers' Aid Commission has found employment for 125 soldiers who have been discharged from military service, and during the same time an additional 200 men have returned to the Province from overseas service. Most of them are now taking further treatment in convalescent homes in the Province, and in due course will be ready for employment. The Commission is also actively engaged in visiting the dependents of men who have been killed in action, and returned soldiers and their families, inquiring if there are any cases of hardship where the commission may be of assistance. Very satisfactory progress has been made with the arrangements for vocational education of returned soldiers, and at a very early date classes for each convalescent home in the Province will be in operation.

THE Local Government of New Brunswick has agreed to the appointment of an Advisory Board in connection with the Farm Settlement Board, to select lands suitable for farming. When the Board has been named, the work of selecting suitable lands will be entered upon, and the project pushed to a conclusion. It has already been recommended by the Provincial Superintendent of Immigration that public lands for this settlement scheme be chosen along the Trans-continental Railway, near Moncton, or along the line between Harcourt and Kent Junction. He estimates that with an investment of a million dollars, one thousand families, representing about five thousand individuals, could be provided with comfortable farm homes. The community principle, I understand, will have every consideration in completing the scheme.

A STATEMENT recently issued by the Victoria Branch of the British Columbia Returned Soldiers' Commission shows the number of returned soldiers reported, the number who had applied for positions and the number receiving employment to July 31st, 1916. The total number of men who had reported at the discharge depôts was 418, while 394 men reported to the various committees, 62 at the Convalescent Hospital, Esquimalt, and six at Tranquille Sanatorium. The total number of applications for employment was 280, and of these 234 were filled. The greatest number of soldiers presented themselves at Vancouver, where 185 men reported, 121 applied for work and 109 secured employment. At Victoria 126 men reported, 119 applied for work and 109 were given employment. Kamloops, New Westminster and North Vancouver were the other principal centres affected. The other provinces are similarly active.

APPLICATIONS from settlers in Northern Ontario for Government loans have already exceeded the \$100,000 set apart for that purpose, and the Minister of Lands, Forests and Mines has announced the intention of the Government to set aside other amounts necessary to meet all the *bonâ fide* claims. A considerable portion of the money originally set aside for the relief of settlers has already been despatched to the North,

and the Minister stated that it is the intention of the Government to make another appropriation for seed grain for settlers similar to that of last year, when \$50,000 was expended for the purpose.

THE British Columbian Government are throwing open to settlement two separate tracts of land in Central British Columbia, containing a total of 400 homesteads of 160 acres each. Up to the present these lands have been reserved by the British Columbian Government, but the progress of settlement in recent months has been so rapid as to make it desirable to throw open additional areas. Most of the land in question is in the vicinity of Fort Fraser.

SCHOOLS are shortly to be opened in Ontario for the purpose of providing technical training for injured soldiers who have been returned to Canada as being no longer fit for active service. Arrangements have also been made with the Ontario Government to carry out on behalf of the Dominion Hospitals Commission a system of special training in the convalescent hospitals in the Province. This will be of therapeutic as well as educational value.

A MINIATURE Red River cart made by Otter Skin, an Indian of the File Hills Reserve, has been presented to Sir Robert Borden, accompanied by a letter from the Indian superintendent there, setting forth the patriotic efforts of members of this band both in contributions to the Patriotic Fund and in recruiting. The members of the reserve have paid over £600 for patriotic purposes, or more than £1 14s. *per capita*, while out of forty men physically fit for military service twenty have offered themselves for enlistment. The remainder do not speak English and therefore cannot be drilled.

REFERRING to the proposal to name one of the highest mountain peaks in Canada after Lord Kitchener, it is interesting to note that there are three mountain peaks in close proximity in Alberta named Kitchener, Joffre and Patricia. The great peaks of the Rockies and Selkirks afford appropriate and permanent monuments to the men and women the war has brought, and is bringing, into prominence. Cavell Mountain is already a shrine. Thus, in more ways than one, the war is making changes on the map of the world.

AN order for 500,000 shirts for the Italian army has been distributed among Canadian knitting mills by the Dominion Department of Trade and Commerce. It is understood that this is the first of a number of large orders for underwear and blankets that will be distributed on behalf of the French and Italian Governments. Large orders have of course been given from time to time on behalf of the Mother Country and Russia, with the result that the Canadian factories are being kept busy.

THE contract for the new Dominion Arsenal to be erected at Lindsay has been awarded by the Canadian Government to an American company which has had a large Canadian branch with headquarters at Montreal for some years. The contract will involve between £400,000 and £600,000, including both buildings and machinery. It is hoped that the work will be completed early next year, and that the new arsenal will be turning out rifles and ammunition in time for the spring offensive.

THE Agent-General for Ontario has received advice from the Ontario Government that arrangements have been made to forward about 20,000 boxes of apples, 35,000 to 40,000 gallon cans of peaches and about fifteen tons of jam for Canadian soldiers in hospitals in Great Britain and France.

A MOVEMENT has been started with the object of linking up every county in Ontario by good roads, the undertaking to be shared jointly by the counties and the Provincial Government. It is hoped that this work will supply employment for every class of labour after the war, including the returned soldier. To meet the scarcity of farm labour, the Department of Education of the Ontario Legislature will permit girls as well as boys to undertake farm work next year, without loss of academic standing.

THE first Fiji contingent having suffered heavy casualties, it was decided to send a second contingent. This contingent, sixty strong, left for England in the month of July. Sir E. im Thurn kindly undertook to interest himself in the welfare of the members of the Fiji contingents and of other volunteers from Fiji. He has devoted himself to his self-imposed task in a manner which has earned the deep gratitude of all, while his reports on the contingents are widely read and greatly appreciated. At the end of last year local contributions to the National Relief Fund, in the form of private subscriptions, reached a sum slightly exceeding £12,000, while private subscriptions to the Fiji Contingent Fund amounted to £7,000. In addition to these amounts considerable sums have been subscribed to Red Cross and other patriotic funds.

IN his opening address to the students of Toronto University President Falconer stated that 3,000 graduates were on active service and 3,000 more were in training; 113 University men had given their lives.

THE Ontario Government has voted £50,000 for the new hospital to be erected at Springbank, near London, Ontario, for consumptive soldiers.

DR. EVELYN WINDSOR, Calgary's School Board Physician, has been made a member of the Army Medical Corps, and will proceed to the front on active service, where her work will be in the dressing stations. She will be the first Canadian lady doctor to go to the front.

APPEALING to the citizens of Greater Vancouver who are staying at home to "do their bit" for the dependents of men at the front, the Canadian Patriotic Fund, Vancouver Branch, is organising a campaign for subscriptions, the sum of £80,000 being aimed at as the 1917 contribution for the city and district, although this is only a fraction of the estimated expenditure for the coming year. At the rate the fund is paying families of the men at the front and at the rate the payments are increasing with the growth of the Vancouver contingents, it is expected that a round million dollars will be disbursed next year. Already large sums are being drawn from the headquarters of the Canadian Patriotic Fund at Ottawa, no less than £10,000 being the requisition for October.

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EMPIRE RECONSTRUCTION AFTER THE WAR

SOME NOTES AND SUGGESTIONS

I.

HISTORY cannot show anything like the British Empire, and there never will be anything like it as long as the Old Country and the countries oversea stand together. Excluding India, the Protectorates and the Crown Colonies, the British Empire contains a galaxy of young, virile and already powerful nations. True, one must not judge the power of a nation by its size, but one is entitled to draw conclusions by comparisons as to what the future portends for that great and grand association, Dominions and Motherland.

The area of the United Kingdom is 121,000 square miles, that of the self-governing Dominions seven and a half million. A hundred years ago the population of Great Britain and Ireland was only equal to the united populations of the Dominions to-day. Fifty years hence, we are told on undoubted authority, that the united populations of the Dominions may be expected to equal if not exceed the present population of the Old Country. These are matters every Imperialist would do well to think about and ponder over. They teach a lesson never to be forgotten, and indicate clearly and forcibly the power of the British Empire in years to come.

Notwithstanding that the Empire was unorganised for war there was no hesitation as to what our course should be when the crucial moment arrived. The only questions asked were, is the war a just one, and can we without loss of honour keep out

of the conflict? We know the answer of Great Britain and Ireland, we know the answer of the Dominions, the Dependencies and India. One and all were determined as they are now and ever will be determined, no matter what the cost may be in blood and in treasure, to preserve intact those glorious traditions which have come down to us from our forefathers, and to hand them on unsullied and unimpaired to generations yet unborn. The British Empire is one great Empire-Home, one great Empire family, with one great Empire heart beating in unison with an inflexible determination to strain every nerve to safeguard the freedom of the world.

Great however as the British Empire is we have made many mistakes in the past which it will be our duty to rectify in the near future. No one can deny that our unpreparedness on land has entailed the loss of many valuable lives and been responsible for many set-backs, including the duration of the war. Not only therefore must we see that everything is provided necessary to win the war, but after the war we must make it equally certain that we are thoroughly prepared on land to meet any eventuality that may arise. Hitherto we have relied for our protection almost entirely upon our first line of defence, the Navy. We must now remember that this country is bound to have alliances with continental countries and probably with countries not continental. That being so, if our assistance is to be of any real service to our allies, it is essential that our Empire Army is prepared to take its part in defending any understanding into which we may enter. The whole power of the United Empire must be utilised to ensure that each portion is making full provision for military as well as for naval defence. For whatever may happen, and many things are sure to happen, there never can be a war associated with any country in which the Navy and the Army alone will be able to ensure the safety of British interests and British territory.

In connection with the war the efforts of our Navy are without parallel. The Navy has saved the Empire. Not only has it protected the ships that have brought the food of the people across the seas, but it has enabled those gallant men now fighting upon continental lands to come from all parts of the Empire to do battle against the common enemy. It has enabled us also to send supplies to the nations allied with us, and above all it has enabled those munitions which the men and women of this country have been, and still are, making so magnificently to be carried across the English Channel. This grand old Navy requires no eulogistic comments from me to impress the heroic deeds and the valour of its men upon every heart and every mind, but I do not think that anyone will disagree with me when I say

that after the war is over we as an Empire must very carefully consider the further development of our naval forces. I readily admit that for many years the Dominions did not pay their proper share towards the support of the Navy; even now, much as they are doing, in my opinion they should do more in return for the protection on the sea they are receiving.

When the war is ended I trust we shall have an opportunity not only of hearing the views of the Lords of the Admiralty but those of men like Admiral Jellicoe and Admiral Beatty on this and other matters connected with Empire naval defence. One special point will have to be decided. It is this. Are we in those distant and scattered countries to have separate local navies or are we to have one great Empire Navy with sections of its fleet apportioned throughout the Empire in time of peace and sent by the British Admiralty wherever they may be required in time of war. So far we have never had, and I expressed the same opinion more than once during the time that I was Prime Minister and Minister of Defence for New Zealand, the views on this all-important point of the responsible men at the Admiralty or of the active men at sea in control of the Navy publicly expressed. We have never heard publicly from these eminent naval authorities what in their opinion best suits the needs, trials, troubles and difficulties of the Empire. We want their advice; we are prepared to listen to them. Do not, however, suppose that we in New Zealand are not as proud and pleased as the people of Australia of what the Commonwealth has done in the matter of establishing a local navy. That, I think we may say, needs no demonstration. But I feel bound to point out as my own view that no oversea Dominion is yet in a position to bear the burden of establishing for itself an independent fully-equipped navy that will be of any really effective use in time of war until it is handed over to the British Admiralty.

This war has already captured from the enemy island possessions in the Pacific which Germany will never get back again. With these added responsibilities one of two alternatives face us. Either we must have one great Empire Navy, and this cannot be unless all the oversea Dominions agree and their Parliaments confirm the agreement, under the control of the British Admiralty in time of war and at the disposal of the Dominion Governments in time of peace, or we must establish a Pacific Navy partly owned by the Dominions immediately concerned and partly by the United Kingdom. But whichever alternative is determined upon one thing is very certain, after we have emerged successfully from the present war we must not return to the old condition of affairs that existed in pre-war days and leave our vast possessions in the Pacific without adequate naval defence.

My view is that the Grand Fleet ought to remain in the North Sea or round the shores of the British Isles both in peace and in war time for the immediate protection of the British Isles, and another fleet should be constructed and stationed under similar conditions in the Pacific. We must not again be compelled to rely upon the navy of any friendly power to do for us in those waters what we can and should do for ourselves.

With regard to the provision of the necessary funds for founding and maintaining an Empire Navy, I would make a suggestion. The population of the United Kingdom and the oversea countries, without counting India or the Crown Colonies, may roughly be said to be sixty million persons; if, then, we agree upon a contribution of ten shillings per head it would provide an annual income of £30,000,000, which at six per cent. would provide in normal times the payment of interest and make provision for a sinking fund on £500,000,000. With this money at our disposal we could build docks as well as provide coaling and oil stations in every part of the Empire. We could also have a navy so powerful and so complete that no combination of enemies would dare to try conclusions with its fleet. Moreover, such a navy would undeniably make for the peace of the world for generations to come. Again, the plan I propose would lessen the expense to the British taxpayer and also reasonably and equitably increase the contribution from the oversea Dominions. I venture to commend it to the consideration of the Home and Dominion Governments as well as to the people they represent.

Another matter to be considered in conjunction with the Navy is the question of air supremacy. The present campaign has shown us that one of the most effective methods of warfare in the future will be that carried on by seaplanes and aeroplanes. There has been nothing more marvellous than the work done by the Royal Naval Air Service and the Royal Flying Corps. When, therefore, the representatives of the Empire are dealing with the question of naval defence they must deal also with the question of air defence. Just as, in my opinion, there must be an Empire Navy, so also there must be an Empire Air Service.

With regard to that wide-reaching problem, the reconstruction of the constitution of the British Empire, I do not propose to outline any definite scheme, but I say advisedly that the people of the British Empire are bound to effect a change, and in my opinion that change should be considered as soon as possible. We cannot, in the best interests and future safety of the Empire allow things to go on as they are; that is impossible. I know there are persons who view with alarm any alteration in the constitution of this Empire. But their number is becoming smaller and smaller every day. On the other hand, a

large number of people both here and in the Dominions believe we ought to have a Consultative Council, an Imperial Council, or a Defensive Council. A still larger number, and in this category I range myself, desire to see organic parliamentary control established in Imperial matters. Of course, there must be no interference with local autonomy, no interference with the rights of the people here to do what they think proper or with the right of the peoples oversea to do what they think proper. But with that limitation I am heart and soul for organic parliamentary control.

I feel confident that the Mother of Parliaments, with its ever-increasing responsibilities in connection with the four sections which make up the British Isles, to say nothing of the responsibilities brought about by the growth and development of the Dominions, will find it impossible, with the machinery now at its disposal, to provide adequately for the full requirements of this country and of the countries oversea. And I have no doubt whatever that, in the near future, there will arise a cry not alone from public men but from the people themselves for the introduction of a system of devolution giving a local Parliament to each portion of the United Kingdom. When that reform is accomplished the way will be paved for the calling into being of a Federal Empire Parliament, empowered to deal with affairs fiscal, defensive and Imperial. I do not say that the change I am anticipating can be made at once; it would take time, but I feel sure that we shall not have to wait many years more before a change of some kind is made in the constitution of the British Empire. It may be that in the interim we shall have an Imperial Council or a Defence Council or a Consultative Council. But whatever body is created it must not be a body created to do nothing; it must be a body where the opinion expressed by the representatives upon it will not only be listened to but carried into effect.

As things exist to-day, this Old Country could if it desired—I do not of course believe that any Government would ever attempt to take such a course nor do I imply that—cede New Zealand to an enemy without consulting the people of New Zealand. If then I am correct in my statement, and I believe I am, surely the time has arrived for the people of the oversea countries to have a voice, it may be a minority voice, but at any rate, a voice in the affairs of the Empire. Already the pledge has been given that the Dominions shall be consulted when the time arrives to settle the terms of peace, but after this war is concluded the Dominions must be placed in the position of consultants on all matters of an Empire character. In future it must be the Empire that declares war, it must be the Empire

that settles questions relating to its military and naval defence, it must be the Empire that is responsible for Treaties with foreign countries. In short, after the war, whether it be a Council or whether we have organic Parliamentary control, a system of Government on an Imperial basis must be established in which the whole Empire and not one part of it alone can express an authoritative opinion on Empire affairs.

It is very satisfactory to note that the opinions of statesmen in this country on this all-important matter are undergoing a change. In this connection I recall the reply given by the late Prime Minister, Mr. Asquith, to a proposal submitted by me to the Imperial Conference in 1911 for a representative Imperial Parliament or Council :—

“For what does Sir Joseph Ward’s proposal come to? I might describe the effect of it without going into details in a couple of sentences. It would impair, if not altogether destroy the authority of the Government of the United Kingdom in such grave matters as the conduct of foreign policy, the conclusion of treaties, and declaration and maintenance of peace, or the declaration of war, and indeed all those relations with foreign powers necessarily of the most delicate character, which are now in the hands of the Imperial Government, subject to its responsibility to the Imperial Parliament. That authority cannot be shared, and the co-existence side by side with the Cabinet of the United Kingdom and the proposed body, it does not matter by what name you call it for the moment, clothed with the functions and the jurisdiction which Sir Joseph Ward proposes to invest it with, would in our judgment be absolutely fatal to our present system of responsible government.”

Now let me quote what Mr. Bonar Law, as Secretary of State for the Colonies, placed on record a year after the war had commenced :—

“As a result of war a time will come when the whole of the self-governing Dominions in proportion to their population and resources will share with the Mother Country in the debt and honour of governing the British Empire.”

Here we have a complete change of front on the part of Ministers in this country, and if further proof be needed of the altered condition of opinion since 1911, I would cite the fact that between that time and the present, the Prime Minister of Canada, the Prime Minister of Australia and the Prime Minister of New Zealand as well as myself have, on the invitation of the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, attended meetings of the Cabinet, thus bearing out the policy outlined by Mr. Steel-

Maitland, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, some eighteen months ago when he gave as a reason for Sir Robert Borden's presence at a Cabinet Meeting "that it was not an isolated instance, but carried out the general trend of policy which is proceeding further in the same direction."

From what I have said I think that there can be little doubt that we are arriving at a stage when the needs of the Empire compel the consideration of a change in its constitution, and if I may express a further opinion it is that a Conference should be held in London of representative men, both Government and Opposition, from all parts of the Empire at as early a date as possible with the object of ascertaining what steps should be taken to bring about a system of government satisfactory, not to one part or to another part of the Empire, but to the Empire as a whole.

Let me now say a few words on the combined problem of commerce and economy. In this connection I sincerely trust the resolutions of the Paris Conference will be given effect to as soon as possible. I am in favour of the British Empire becoming more self-contained and self-supporting. By this I do not mean that we are to turn a deaf ear to those Allies who have been working with us or to neutral countries; were we to do that we should drive them into the arms of the enemy. What I ask is: Do we intend to allow the perpetuation of a system which if it had gone on for another ten or fifteen years would have allowed Germany to have won a bloodless commercial battle against the British Empire? Before the war in all British ports, whether here or oversea the German flag was flying over German ships just as freely as the British flag was flying over British ships. Am I to be told as a citizen of the British Empire that when this war is ended the people of the United Kingdom and the peoples of the Dominions are powerless to evolve a scheme which is going to lead to the expansion of our Empire trade, which is going to put us in the position of being able to engage in trade with one another and with any country with which we elect to engage but not with an unscrupulous enemy who has applied the most barbarous methods against innocent men, women and children on land and sea that it was possible to invent.

Again, when the time comes to adjust our own commercial household and to work with our Allies, it would be an act of madness to leave the United States out of consideration in the settlement of what is to be our future trade methods. These are difficult matters. Very difficult, but I have never known difficulties that could not be overcome by the application of commonsense and a certain amount of give and take even where those difficulties appear at first sight to be insuperable.

When this war is over every part of the Empire will find a new condition of things. We shall have to face a great alteration in the industrial world as well as in the wages world; we shall have to meet the strong desire which in many quarters is already being shown to nationalise in various directions. Can it be possible that the men high up in the world and the men occupying the more lowly positions in the world, after they have been brought together in the trenches are coming back without a softening tendency towards each other? Will they not compare the lives they have been living as companions in arms with the lives that existed before the war began?

For myself I deprecate giving any facilities to the enemy after the war. I would stop the German ships using our coaling stations. Germany never allowed our ships to use the Kiel Canal in pre-war days, why should we then when peace is declared allow their ships to use the Suez Canal? Why should we have competition by German ships against British ships and against British money, against neutral ships and against neutral money, seeing that two of the chief belligerents, Great Britain and France, are practically the owners of the Canal? Not only would I stop the Germans from using the Suez Canal and British coaling stations, I would stop them from using any British port, and I hope that it will be made a fundamental condition of peace that in regard to mercantile marine Germany will have to give back ton for ton for every merchant ship and every peaceful liner she has wantonly sunk during the war.

There are two or three other matters which I will briefly touch upon. When more peaceful days come the heart of the Chancellor of the Exchequer has got to be softened upon the question of taxing twice over the citizens of the British Empire. We know that the Old Country requires money to meet the enormous expense it is incurring, and so it is with the countries oversea. But we who dwell in the Dominions feel, and I am sure everyone here feels too, that where a British citizen has once paid taxation upon his earnings, no matter in what part of the British Empire the payment is made, he should not and ought not to be called upon to pay taxation upon the same earnings a second time in another part of the British Empire. This is a matter which must be put right, and in my opinion it is a demand which should never have been made.

And now a word about emigration. Naturally the people here do not want to lose their population; we know and appreciate that sentiment. At the same time when this war is over there is going to be emigration from the Mother Country, and I believe that emigration will be on a large scale. That being so, is it not the duty of the British Government to see that the emigrants go

to some portion of the British Empire and not to any outside country? If you transfer a Britisher from the homeland to Australia, Canada or New Zealand, he still remains a citizen of the Empire; he is there to help make the Empire greater and stronger in every possible way. Whatever may be said to the contrary, in my opinion thousands of men who have left this country to take their part in the war will never return to take up their former occupations. These men are going to try and carve out a career for themselves in the oversea countries; many of them have themselves written to me and explained their ambitions in this direction. But I should like to point out and to emphasise that the emigration problem is not to be dealt with by the oversea countries alone, it must be considered and dealt with by the Government of this country and the Governments of the countries oversea acting conjointly and acting together.

Before concluding these few remarks I should like to deal shortly with the question about which I have thought a good deal, that of Empire finance. The Prime Minister, Mr. Lloyd George, when Chancellor of the Exchequer, did one of the best things for the Empire that any British statesman has ever done. He created an Empire system of finance, and by this means £50,000,000 was advanced by the British Treasury to Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa to help them carry on their part of the war at the beginning of the campaign. This amount has since been greatly increased. This is what I call financial preference within the Empire, and believe me its value in drawing the cords of Empire tighter and tighter is very great. Again, the limitations placed by the Treasury upon the sending of money out of England except where British interests are involved, and on the floatation of money in this country without special authority, have assisted very materially in financing the war. While on the subject of finance I should like to make a suggestion to the men who control the output of money in this country. When war is over do not again lend your money to your enemies or perhaps I should say to the nations against whom we are now at war. If you can get as good results from friends within the Empire, from the Allies and neutrals, why not stick to them. Instead of assisting to build up and develop an enemy country, why not do your part in making the great financial fabric of the British Empire from a production standpoint, from a settlement standpoint, from the standpoint of the masses of the people better and greater than it was in pre-war days?

This war is teaching us a great lesson, the value of being prepared for any eventuality on sea, on land and in the air. In future we must take no chances, and to this end our

watchwords must be co-ordination and co-operation. When the history of this war comes to be written the historian will say, what all of us know, that the war was a necessity. It had to come. If we had gone on under the same conditions for another fifteen years, Germany would have had its fangs deep into the roots of the soil both of the Motherland and of the Dominions, Germany would have grown in strength upon the sea and have developed in the air faster than we should have thought it necessary to have done, and we should have found it very difficult to have fought against her single-handed, and that would have been our fate had we not taken sides with France and with Russia against the common foe. Though the loss of life is great, though the sorrow which has entered the homes of our dear ones all over the Empire is of the saddest kind, still no one can and no one will say that this war is not a blessing to humanity and a blessing to civilisation. It has preserved, I hope for all time, the great British Empire from the domination of an unscrupulous, barbarous and unrelenting despot.

In conclusion let me say that I am proud of the Motherland for the work she has done, I am proud of the oversea countries for the work they have done. Difficulties there have been and must still be, mistakes there have been and will still be, but there is but one end and one end only to this great war, the downfall of Prussian militarism and victory for the cause of liberty, justice and freedom. To ensure this end, however, our generals in the field must be provided with all the men necessary to take the places of those who unhappily go down in the fighting or are put out of action by wounds or disease, and there must never again be a shortage of munitions in any part of the field where our gallant troops are fighting so bravely and so well. Men and munitions, more men and more munitions, and effective means to preserve the ships of the mercantile marine from the deadly attacks of enemy submarines—that is all we want to end the war and make victory secure.

JOSEPH G. WARD.

II *

NOT only do we want the Empire to cohere and not to separate, but we want at the same time that coherence and continuance to be compatible with complete local freedom for the people of each Dominion to order its own affairs. It will be a wise policy, therefore, at the end of the war to call a convention or conference to review the situation, without prejudice, so as to consider what steps, if any, the Governments of the Dominions should take. Moreover, we ought to be agreed in our view of the general type of conditions which we all have to face in the near future. The world is now so parcelled out that there is no unoccupied territory. Hence, if nations want to expand they must do so at the expense of other nations, and if you touch one part of the world the movement will affect others. That means that people who have been more or less outside the centres of disturbance before will be affected by them in the future. Foreign policy is, therefore, not going to be a matter alone for the British Isles, but a matter affecting in varying degree all the Dominions. It is no good trying to keep out of the vortex of European politics. Politics are no longer European; they are world-wide, and no nation can live its life outside them. In order, therefore, to keep peace, we have to maintain the efficiency of the whole body, and for that purpose organisation is essential.

Let me now proceed to deal with different views that have been expressed as regards the development of the Empire. I will first take what I may call the theory of "natural growth," on which there is a very natural tendency on the part of many people to rely. As Lord Milner has rightly said, there is no such thing as natural growth applied to institutions. What is meant is that action has got to be taken in view of circumstances as they arise. It may be that a series of small steps are taken, or it may be that one striking advance is made, but, in any case, you have to take conscious action. And here may I point out the infirmity from which British politicians suffer, but from which politicians in the Dominions are doubtless free. Many of us never treat our politics as we would do a matter of business. If we were taking a house, we would see that it had a proper number of rooms, good sanitation, and the rest. But we never weigh up a political problem in the same way. Consider "natural

* Being the speech, arranged in article form, delivered by the Under Secretary of State for the Colonies at a private conference of representatives of the Home and Dominion Parliaments, convened by the Empire Parliamentary Association, and held at the House of Commons.

growth " from that point of view. As a matter of fact, the great unions in the world have been created by conscious acts, whether the union of England with Scotland, or a greater union like that of the United States. They were conscious acts done in given circumstances. None of the great unions grew like cabbages while we were asleep. As human beings with intelligence and the power of conscious endeavour, we have to be prepared to take such acts, and not to be afraid of them. Economic conditions are really much more difficult and intricate than constitutional conditions. Yet we are all in different degrees endeavouring to adjust economic conditions to our needs.

Next comes the policy summed up in the phrase "Leave well alone." I have heard it said by a Dominion advocate of that policy, "Can any Constitution help us to force men to come in and take part in a war like this when they would prefer to remain out of it?" That sounds good logic, but it does not really bear examination. What is the corollary? It means that it is possible to remain neutral in a war of this kind and yet at the same time remain part of the entity of the British Empire. The two things are quite incompatible. To remain neutral would mean that you would allow the submarine which sank the *Lusitania* to come into your ports and refit. You would be bound to do so, or go to war. No greater freedom, therefore, in the event of war is attained by remaining outside an organic Imperial Constitution than by entering into it. But the argument contains a fallacy of another kind. So long as we in England frame the foreign policy for the Empire, the Dominions have very little share in shaping it. We consult Australia, Canada, and the other Dominions, as best we can, but people here cannot have an intimate knowledge of Australian conditions. We may talk to the High Commissioners and do what we now do in the way of sending cablegrams to Dominion Governments, but as a matter of fact they do not have a real share in determining the policy. But if they were to come in and have a real share by working at affairs with us, then the situation would be very different. It might well be that through their presence and co-operation the policy adopted would be different from what it might otherwise have been. But even if it were the same we must remember one undoubted fact. By joining in the direction of affairs, and only so, can men really understand the different forces and movements which must influence our action. To what does this lead? To this: that even if the policy adopted by you jointly with us be the same as what we should have decided independently, yet it would command, from the very fact of your co-operation, your freer and readier assent. In other words, the conclusion seems to me inevitable that the

argument by which the policy of "leaving well alone" has been supported is based on wrong premises and is wholly untenable.

The formation of an Advisory Council is a proposal of another kind. There would be representatives from the Dominions coming here, and, so to speak, learning about foreign affairs. I wish to say nothing disparagingly. Foreign affairs are a difficult and somewhat esoteric subject, and in truth need a deal of learning by anyone. It is almost impossible, however, for a really busy executive office even to impart the information to an Advisory Council so that they might found advice upon it. In such circumstances, if the Federal Advisory Council in Australia was a fifth wheel in the coach and became almost an absurdity, so would it be with the Imperial Advisory Council. Moreover, advice in matters of such moment is really seldom worth having unless the people who give it have responsibility in addition to knowledge. Consider, again, the representative character of the Council. An Advisory Council is really only of use if you can say it represents the Administration which sent it. The Colonial Office would have to remit the opinion given to the various Dominion Governments to ask if it was what they really thought. Otherwise, to be candid, there would be a row. But surely its representative character is very imperfect if we have at once to ask the Dominion Governments if they approve its findings. But the last and most serious flaw in the proposal seems to me to be this. We should try to meet the wishes of the Dominion as best we could. Indeed, we do so now. But every Government must in the final resort act upon the wishes of the people who put it into power and can put it out again. Let me sum up. It is not likely that the advice given by an Advisory Council would be good. It could not be accepted without question as authoritative of the wishes of Dominions. And should it conflict with the wishes of the electorate to which the Executive was responsible, it would not be taken.

It is said that if we had an Empire Parliament it would encroach upon local autonomy. The separation and division of powers is never an easy matter, but at least it is no more difficult to distinguish between the powers given to an Empire Parliament and the Dominion Parliaments than between the powers of the different States of the Commonwealth or Dominion and those of the Commonwealth or Dominion Government. It is quite a possible task. It must, of course, be made quite clear that the Dominions would continue to enjoy the whole of the local autonomy which they now possess, including that of Customs. As regards the franchise for an Imperial Parliament, opinions may differ, and the question is not vital in character. As a matter of personal opinion, I would have it on a broad democratic basis,

but it might be possible to leave it to the different Dominions to determine the precise conditions for themselves. With regard to finance, there would be no intention to impose taxes and taxing officials, but it should be perfectly possible to agree upon the quota which ought to be contributed by the various parts to the central exchequer. As regards the representation of the different parts of the Empire in the common Parliament, I quite understand the feeling of the very small Dominions. But is the objection insuperable or even very serious? In other Unions it has been found possible to give the smaller units a more than proportionate voice without doing injustice to the larger, and I have not the least doubt that it could be done in our case.

Lastly, I would say a word on the question of freedom, on which all the Dominions lay stress. The institution of a central Parliament does not imply any derogation from freedom. Freedom for independent men does not consist in not being bound by results, but in coming to conclusions and being willing to stand by them. That is the true nature of freedom for nations just as much as for individuals. But if anyone says, "Australia is a small country," then I say take the case of Scotland. Here we are, quite a small fraction, amongst our good friends the English. We have no guarantees even, such as the Dominions would have, as to local autonomy, or more than proportionate representation, and yet there is not a single Scot worth his salt who does not say that as a Scotsman in Great Britain his is a larger freedom than ever Scotland in isolation could have given him. What I say of Scotland can truly be said of the larger sphere. Let us recognise the facts, for they are "the chiels that winna ding," and treat the whole problem with at least the care with which one would treat a matter of private business. But if we want to get to business, then, I say, press for a convention to examine the problem for the sake of the Empire as a whole.

ARTHUR STEEL-MAITLAND.

LOCAL WAR MUSEUMS

A CASE of British naval and military medals always associates itself in my mind with the lofty sculpture-crowded aisles of Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's Cathedral. These stately shrines house the national memorials to great admirals and generals who direct Britain's forces on sea or land, but for the minor officers and rank and file, who constituted the individual units of those forces, no statues are erected, and their bones lie amid less hallowed surroundings. Their most permanent memorials are the medals they won—those little plaques of metal, generally of inartistic design and little intrinsic value, yet worthy of all reverence as records of iron courage and heroic self-sacrifice, gained at the hazard of life and limb. The posthumous fame of the vast majority of British soldiers and sailors rests on the preservation of these little tokens; and thus the collector's medal cabinet constitutes their Valhalla, a shrine distinguished by no such hallowed environment as St. Paul's or Westminster, immeasurably inferior in dignity and beauty, yet containing the memorials of a courage and patriotism the same in kind, if not exerted in such wide-reaching spheres, as the courage and patriotism displayed by Britain's greatest and noblest sons.

One well might wish that these memorials of our past generations of soldiers and sailors could be collected and housed in public museums in the districts where they were born, and where their descendants may be still living, so that traditions of local patriotism and self-sacrifice would be strengthened. Something in this way has already been done. Many of the larger provincial cities boast of collections of medals, and others have been formed for various regimental mess-rooms, and so form an inspiring record of past achievements by the corps, a standard of valour and self-sacrifice which must never be lowered. And yet, when all is said and done, the memory of the great multitude of our dead sailors and soldiers, whose valour established the power of Britain in all quarters of the globe and made her flag dominate the seas, is but indifferently preserved. Monuments have been erected to them in various places, but it is largely those engaged

in our minor wars who are thus distinguished, and then merely the men who were killed or died during the actual campaigns. The survivors, who endured the same dangers and hardships and emerged with their lives, though, perhaps, broken in health or hopelessly crippled, have no part in these memorials. Their records are only preserved on their medals, and the bulk of English naval and military medals date back no further than the nineteenth century.

We have thus few memorials of the rank and file who served in the long-drawn-out Napoleonic struggle—the last war which in the greatness of the interests at stake, the number of countries involved, and the prodigious sacrifice of life and treasure, was at all comparable with the conflict we are waging now. It is pitiful to think that the names of tens of thousands of men who then fought for their country could not be preserved for posterity. Their bones line the bed of nearly every navigable sea, and strew the shores of nearly every civilised country, and yet Britain was too poor or careless to preserve their memory. Shall we do better for those who are fighting and working for the Empire to-day? Shall we so hand down their names to posterity that their descendants in generations remote from ours may feel a noble and justifiable pride in possessing such ancestors? One hesitates to answer, because the task is great, and unless we systematically set about it we shall leave to our rank and file no better permanent record of their achievements than their medals, which, like those of their forerunners, will be scattered about in collectors' cases over the length and breadth of the country. No doubt monuments, statues, and mural tablets will be erected to the memory of the fallen—these are appropriate memorials. But are they sufficient? Similar erections were made during and after the Napoleonic war, but do they convey to us any idea of the magnitude of the struggle, or of the colossal sacrifices then made by the nation? We remember the crowning glory of Waterloo, but do we fully realise the quarter of a century of long-drawn agony which preceded it? Until the present war accustomed us to the prodigious expenditure of life necessitated by the dimensions of modern armies, we used to feel shocked by the carnage at Waterloo, where nearly ten thousand of our countrymen were killed or wounded, and yet this carnage was far from exceptional. Between February, 1793, when the war commenced, and June, 1815, when it finally closed, probably a million British soldiers and sailors either fell in battle or died of wounds or disease. To commemorate all this valour and self-sacrifice we have merely a few monuments and some hundreds of medals, granted in most cases nearly fifty years after the events they commemorated occurred.

We may fondly imagine that the war in which we are now

engaged is so stupendous in its extent, and so decisive in its influence on the future destiny of the world, that no important episode connected with it will be forgotten, and that the names of those now fighting in the cause of justice and righteousness will always be held in honour. Yet unless we do differently to what we have done in the past this will not be so. In fifty years' time the story of the war will be condensed into half a dozen pages of the orthodox school histories. Only the names of the more important and decisive battles will be remembered, and localities now hallowed to us by deeds of matchless heroism and the memories of those of our nearest and dearest who have fallen there will relapse once more into obscurity. The memorials erected to the fallen will be passed with as little attention as that now paid to the memorials of heroes fallen in earlier wars. A few names of celebrated commanders will linger in popular memory, but the names of the millions of the rank and file, who have served by land or sea, will be forgotten by everyone except their immediate descendants.

To prevent this happening, and to redeem the reproach levelled at us, too often with some justice, that we only remember our soldiers and sailors in our hours of need, we must devise a scheme that shall keep the events of the great war fresh in public memory and seize the imaginations of posterity, so that instead of leaving them merely bald records of names and events—none the less bald because inscribed on stately memorials—we must provide for them material that will enable them to visualise the experiences through which we have passed, and partake of our hopes, fears, disappointments and triumphs. One way of doing this would be by the establishment of a War Museum in every centre of population. It need not be a separate building, for portions of museums already existing could be used for the purpose. In these could be accumulated relics of the war—not merely articles of obvious military or naval interest, like those shown in the United Service Museum, but the little things, now part of our everyday life, which appear so insignificant as to be hardly worth the saving. I think that posterity will take a keen interest in our flag days, and samples of these little painted pieces of paper by which thousands of pounds have been raised for war charities should certainly be included; patriotic stamps, used for the same end, though not nearly so successful, should not be omitted; and examples of the street lamps with their sides rendered almost opaque with heavy coats of paint, so as to make them invisible to Zeppelin raiders, should be represented. Then there are the recruiting posters, by which we raised the largest volunteer army the world has ever seen; the War Loan posters, which helped to bring hundreds of millions of pounds to the

national treasury ; war workers' badges and armlets ; the remnants of bombs dropped by Zeppelins, and of Zeppelins themselves which have been brought down ; as well as dozens of other little items, which will convey to posterity a more vivid idea of the life of our non-military population during the war, of their endurance, patriotism and charity, than any amount of written description.

But all these articles are merely subsidiary, a background intended to illustrate civilian life and work during the war, while the main display should form a permanent memorial to the sailors and soldiers who have offered their lives for their country's service. The memorial should be local rather than national in its scope, commemorating the patriotism of the men from the surrounding district, so that those who have come back from the Empire's far-flung battle line, in West or East, may feel that their heroism is appreciated by their fellow-citizens ; and the kindred and friends of those who have not returned will have their sorrow assuaged by pride in the record of their deeds. Those purposes cannot be adequately effected by a general memorial in which the names of individuals are not recorded. Though John Smith's friends may know that he is one of twenty thousand unnamed men who died for their King and country, posterity will not know it, and it should be both our pride and duty to see that the name of every one who has risked his all for our sakes should be permanently inscribed on the Empire's roll of honour.

The last word suggests how this may be done, simply, efficiently and inexpensively. We all know what rolls of honour are. We see them in every large office, every large school ; they are set up in humble but beautiful shrines in East End streets ; and these last are the most simple and touching of them all—often plain sheets of paper bearing the names, written in legible script, of the men who are serving in the Navy and the Army. One might like these lists to be transferred to marble tablets, and engraved thereon in letters so deeply cut as to be imperishable, but the multitude of our soldiers and sailors forbids. If we covered the walls of St. Paul's with one vast series of marble tablets, there would be hardly room for a tithe of the names of those who are serving their country. In some of our large provincial towns the sailors and soldiers sent to the front must exceed fifty thousand, and perhaps in one or two instances run into six figures. The local rolls of honour, at any rate those of the larger towns, will have to be in book-form. They should give a full list of all the men in the vicinity who have joined either Army or Navy, short particulars as to where they served, and whether they were killed or wounded, or attained promotion

or other distinction. These rolls should be written on vellum and strongly bound, so that with careful usage they may be practically imperishable, and even remote descendants of the men whose names are inscribed on the rolls will be able to look at the records of their ancestors' actions.

But though these rolls will afford a record of the men who served in the war, it will be but a bald record. The descendants of John Smith may be proud to learn that their ancestor won a Victoria Cross at the storming of Combles or took part in the capture of Thiepval, but they will want to know something about the actions in order to fully appreciate Smith's bravery, and probably the school histories of the future may altogether omit mentioning either Combles or Thiepval, condensing the whole account of the tremendous conflict on the Somme into a curt six or seven line paragraph. How are we to supply this deficiency and hand down to posterity such a vivid idea of the doings of John Smith and his companions that their imaginations may be lit up and their hearts thrilled at the picture of John Smith's bravery? The suggestion of His Majesty the King affords the basis for a practical and easily executed solution of the problem so far as printed records of the regiments go, His Majesty having through his Librarian asked all regiments that have printed or are printing records to send a copy for preservation in the Royal Library for use when the full story of the present war is written. No doubt regiments would be glad to send similar records to be preserved in the museums of the towns with which the regiments are territorially connected.

Most of our regiments are territorial; the vast majority of the men who have been engaged in the present war have been drawn from the localities surrounding their main depôts. Thus the rank and file of the King's Liverpool Regiment are mainly gathered from the Liverpool district, those of the Gordon Highlanders from the Aberdeen district, and so forth. The same rule largely holds good with the ships of His Majesty's Navy. They are attached to certain of our naval ports, and the bulk of the crew of an individual battleship have their homes in the same town. Let, then, each municipality in which a War Museum is established have all references to local regiments or ships which appear in the press carefully cut out and collected, illustrations as well as letterpress. When possible the original drawings or photographs from which the illustrations were reproduced should be obtained and either framed or filed for reference. These might be supplemented by maps or plans, on a large scale, of the actions in which the local regiments took part, on which their positions and movements should be clearly indicated, and it should not be impossible to accompany these with views of the

locality in which the battles occurred. With such records to aid them, the descendants of John Smith would be able to trace the doings of their ancestor step by step, and realise to the full the perils he encountered and the valour with which he faced them.

So far I have only mentioned what may be described as the literary elements of the naval and military portion of the museum—the description of things, but not the things themselves. It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to expatiate on the latter, for we are all at one in the consciousness that every direct relic of the war is of supreme interest. Yet here again we must be careful that nothing is overlooked, for articles which are so common to-day that we think they are hardly worth caring for may have disappeared in a few years' time. As all collectors know, the valuables of every generation are more or less plentiful because they are instinctively preserved; it is the trifles and things apparently of no account which altogether vanish, and this is the more to be regretted because these little things often throw a more intimate light on the period than the great ones. It is essential, then, that nothing should be overlooked. Illiterate letters from privates at the front giving an insight into their experiences, in fifty years' time may be rated as more interesting than official despatches, while regimental newspapers will possess a far greater chance of immortality than more important and ambitious productions. Of course, uniforms, badges, accoutrements, and weapons of all kinds, both those of the enemy and our own, should appear in the collection, and with these should be included articles of attire, which cannot be strictly classified as portions of regimental uniforms, such as trench boots, waders, body shields, gas and ordinary helmets, or sheepskin coats. Interesting trophies from the battlefield should be given an important place; and war medals, instead of being hidden away with art exhibits, should here be awarded their proper position as records of bravery and self-sacrifice. They will be regarded with tenfold more interest because spectators have around them ample materials by which to realise the bravery of the action for which the decoration was awarded.

A museum conceived on these lines would in time attract to itself more precious and intimate relics even than those already mentioned—portraits and busts of distinguished officers, swords carried on the battlefield, flags which had flaunted on the tops of British battleships when they engaged in action with the enemy. It would form at once a local museum, a local portrait gallery, and a local Valhalla. And the idea might be extended. It would not be necessary to confine the scope of such a museum to recording the heroism of our own times. We might go

backwards. Many of our towns have annals which extend far down the records of British history. Their trained bands took part in the great Civil War; they raised regiments—many of which are still in existence—to meet great national dangers such as the Jacobite Rebellion or the threatened invasion of Napoleon. Their private ships, whether in the guise of merchantmen or privateers, engaged in many a sanguinary conflict with Britain's enemies, and helped to establish the supremacy of her flag at sea. Nor are these proud records confined to the homeland; many of the cities of the great Dominions have, in the past as well as now, sent their sons to fight in the Empire's battle line, and some of them have been the actual scenes of strenuous contests. Where are the chronicles of such things to be found? They must be dived and delved for amidst musty old histories, and many of them are irretrievably lost. In a War Museum such relics of our heroic past as still remain might be collected and arranged to accompany the more complete record of our heroic present. There are hundreds of old uniforms and accoutrements—regular, militia, volunteer and yeomanry—stored away in lumber-rooms and wardrobes which, where it known that there was a fitting place to receive them, might be had almost for the asking. Other and more vital relics would be forthcoming, until each museum might become an epitome of local patriotism and heroism.

It would be no small thing to accomplish this; to bring home to the people of every locality, however obscure, that they and their ancestors have played their part in the making of Britain and her Empire, and that their share in her greatness and the glory of her achievements ennobles them and gives them a cause of higher pride than the possession of either rank or riches can bestow.

C. REGINALD GRUNDY

NAVAL AND MILITARY DEFENCE

EMPIRE Defence is one of the many problems of Empire organisation which await consideration after the war, and like the majority of other problems its solution lies in organising a family of free democracies so that one may get the efficiency which is supposed to belong to autocracies while preserving the individual freedom of each unit of the family. It is not an easy task. But out of the horrors of this great war one good has arisen—all of us, whether in this country or in the Dominions overseas, are united as never before by a bond of common suffering and sacrifice which prevents us from standing on our dignities or our selfish interests. We have learned also that this world has been standing on the edge of a precipice of tyranny and horror, and that to us in the British Empire has fallen the principal part in rebuilding civilisation along liberal and progressive lines.

I do not believe that we suffered so much at the beginning of this war from lack of actual preparation as from lack of having thought out the problem that might confront us as an Empire. It is the fashion to say we were entirely unprepared. That is, if I may say so, quite inaccurate. Our Navy was certainly not unprepared. That everyone will admit, and I think it will be written on the pages of history that, among all the great military forces on either side of this conflict, the most ready and the most efficient was the British Navy. I fancy, if one could talk to the great Staff of the German army, if one could see into their minds and know what their aspirations were at the beginning of the war, and what their expectations were, one would find that they would not compare their great army, with all its power and with all its devilish ingenuity, as equally efficient with the British Navy.

One of the most amazing features of this war has been the predominance of the British Navy. The German Fleet has so disappeared from the picture of this war that people are inclined to forget that Germany was and, in fact, is the second sea Power of the world. If we cast our minds back to pre-war controversies

we shall remember how all of us who took a great interest in a powerful Navy were concerned not as to whether the British Fleet could prevent a single German ship emerging from its harbours, but as to whether there was not a real risk that the British Fleet might lose command of the seas for an appreciable period and bring down the British Empire. That was the problem. And yet, so efficient was the preparation of the British Navy, so good was the brain power applied by our expert naval officers to the problems of the future, that we find not only has there been no real risk of losing the seas, but we have done what we never did after Trafalgar—we have practically swept the seas clear of every ship that flies the enemy flag, whether it is warlike or whether it is mercantile. The only problem left to us is the submarine problem, which, after all, is so novel that it is not surprising that the enemy has attained a certain measure of success in the course of that campaign.

Another fact which I suggest has emerged is that we have not suffered so much from lack of men as from lack of machines and from lack of training in the high commands in the full use of the resources which invention has placed at the disposal of the military machines. We have proved that it is easier to train men—and, if you have got the right men, even to train technical men, such as artillery officers—than to provide the machines which modern warfare demands. The Continental combatant Powers, including even in some degree Germany, have been faced by the same problem in another form. Possessing adequate numbers of trained soldiers, there has yet been an unexpected shortage of the most modern and vitally necessary fighting machinery. Therefore, what has been discovered in this problem is the same thing which has been discovered in all other problems—namely, the need of applying adequate trained brain power to the problem. Wherever we have done that we have no reason to be ashamed. We applied skilled brain-power to our small Expeditionary Force. It is computed by men who know, that little force was the finest body of troops as regards training which any country has ever put in the field. I am merely referring here to training, because, as every soldier knows, the material which we have drawn into our new armies is finer in the sense of education and to a very large extent in physique than the personnel which the old Army used to draw upon. But so highly disciplined was that force, so imbued was it with the greatest traditions of the fighting field, that Continental soldiers, as well as people here, have never denied that it was a force which probably no Power in the world has ever equalled for discipline and endurance. I must not go into details, but I would remind my readers that in that Expeditionary Force the

Seventh Division lost without being demoralised in three weeks 356 officers out of 400, and 9,664 men out of 12,000, and there was still a sting left in the Division after such colossal losses in so short a time. One could allude to other things. Take the Fourth Battalion of the Royal Fusiliers. At the battle of Mons one single company held without any particular defence four battalions of the cream of the German army at bay, and prevented them crossing the canal during a whole day. Those men were so disciplined, so imbued with skill in the use of their weapons, that, if one may say so without any aspersion on their heroism, they fought automatically to the bitter end, and did not know what it was to be demoralised in the worst sense of the word.

The proposition I lay down is that in the British Navy and British Army we have all that is necessary for devising the greatest defensive and offensive force in the world. The Army may not be very numerous, because our population is small, but we have the right type of men perhaps to the extent which no other nation has. Particularly have we the right type of men in the far-flung Dominions, men accustomed to responsibility and to depending upon themselves; and our only problem is to see that thought is applied to every contingency which may affect this Empire, so that, if at any time we have war, whether that war be large or small, we are not taken by surprise, but the machine is in existence for dealing with that particular emergency as it arises.

I would lay down four propositions, and there is nothing novel in them. The first is that this war has made it inevitable for the Dominions as well as Great Britain to make larger permanent preparations for self-defence. The second is that no machinery we devise must hamper the full use of sea-power by seamen, because the whole of our power, the whole of our strength, the whole of our future depends upon the intelligent use of sea-power by great seamen such as this country has never failed to produce in times of emergency. To these I would add that our Imperial Army, constituted how you will, must in some way, and, after all, the way is obvious, attract to itself men of the same brain-power as our naval officers. Everyone knows that, although the Army has produced men of great ability, it has been a crushing burden in this crisis to find how low the intellectual standard of the older army officer was. One of our first duties, then, is to provide an Army the officers and non-commissioned officers of which will be as highly trained as their brothers and cousins who serve in the Navy—men who are professional in the highest sense of the word, and who are properly paid for doing a good honest day's work. And, further, we ought to devise a machine by which any man,

however remote the part of the Empire in which he lives, may be encouraged to enrol himself in our military machine.

The fourth and last point I make is that there shall be a central body, representing the Navy, the Army, and the statesmen, whose energies should be devoted to thinking out future problems of defence. A great part of their duty should be the maintenance of the best war equipment for great armies which we may quickly desire to raise in times of emergency. It is an enormous problem. Take, for instance, the use of that great new weapon, the flying machine. It should be constantly considered by a body such as I have described. Further, we, the politicians of the Empire, and our successors in the future, should do what democratic politicians find it very difficult to do—take a much keener interest in the details of defence work. I do not know whether it is the same in the Dominion parliaments, but it certainly is so in the Imperial parliament, that, whereas men take the deepest interest in the smallest details of, say, factory legislation, or agricultural legislation, or the provision of railway facilities or harbours, or anything of that kind, as is inevitable in a great free democracy, yet, on the other hand, only a small number of people take much interest in defence, and of that small number a certain residue are cranks who are disappointed in their own professional careers. That must be ended.

We have, by the mercy of Providence, escaped from a colossal peril, and it rests upon us to see that those who follow after us are safer than we were, and that we do not in the wars to come, if wars there be, purchase safety by unnecessary sacrifice—unnecessary in the sense that it could have been prevented if we had foreseen—the unnecessary sacrifice of thousands of our finest young lives.

CECIL BECK.

CHURCH AND STATE

THE ARCHBISHOP'S REPORT CONSIDERED FROM A NONCONFORMIST STANDPOINT

II

THE constitution of the central government of the Church, and its powers and relations to the State is a matter of supreme importance and unfortunately highly contentious. The proposals of the Committee in this respect are revolutionary, and require careful and dispassionate attention.

The present subordination of the Established Church to the State is the result of centuries of history. The Crown is the supreme head of the Church, and nominates to archbishoprics and bishoprics with the advice of the Prime Minister of the day. The Convocations—the present instruments of Church government—cannot meet without royal assent, nor may canons be enacted without previous license from the Crown, nor, when enacted, may they become effective without further license. Canons do not bind the laity unless confirmed by Act of Parliament, and as the doctrine of the Church is to be found in the Book of Common Prayer, and in the XXXIX Articles, both of which are recognised by statute, Parliamentary consent is necessary to any change in the form of worship of the Church. Further, by legislation Parliament has introduced serious inconsistencies between statute law and the rules and practices of the Church as a spiritual society, *e.g.*, the legalising of the re-marriage of divorced persons (1857) according to the rites of the Church, and the Deceased Wife's Sister Act, 1907.

Thus, the freedom of the Church is very closely hampered by these various restrictions, and the Committee rightly points out that whereas in the past Parliament was a Church assembly, and therefore competent to discuss ecclesiastical legislation, to-day it is in no sense a Church assembly, and lacks both time and inclination for the task. Measures of subordinate interest, such as Bills affecting religious bodies, and introduced by private

members, enjoy under present Parliamentary conditions slight chance of success. The results of an examination of the Public Bill Lists for the years 1880-1913 made by one of the members of the Committee are very striking. According to his computation, out of 217 Church Bills, some of them dealing with very important subjects, introduced into the House of Commons during that period, 33 were passed, 183 dropped, and one only was negatived. Of 74 Bills dealing with subjects of interest to Nonconformists, 38 were designed to alter the law in their interests, the other 36 being concerned with trust deeds of chapels; one only of the former class and 24 of the latter class were passed, while 49 Bills were dropped. Of the Church Bills 162 were never discussed at all; of the 33 which became law, 13 were directly sponsored by a member of the Government of the day, and all the rest probably owed their passage to Government assistance of some kind or other.

It will thus be seen that the principal weapon of reform is feeble and inefficient. The Convocations can legislate in a minor fashion by means of canons, but these canons can only become effective on license from the Crown, and cannot bind the laity without Parliamentary sanction. Moreover, a large body of churchmen to-day are profoundly dissatisfied with the present constitution of the Convocations, and demand extensive change.

The Committee, in the first place, deals with this question of Convocation, and recommends the following reform:—

(1) That, in order that the proctors elected to represent the beneficed clergy licensed to officiate in the diocese should form a majority of the members of each House, two proctors from each archdeaconry should be elected to the Lower House of the Canterbury Convocation, as is now the case in the York province.

(2) That all priests, beneficed or unbeneficed, and duly licensed to officiate in the diocese (with the exception of members of cathedral chapters) should have the right to vote at the elections of proctors to represent the clergy of the diocese, and themselves to sit if elected.

(3) That deans should cease to be *ex officio* members of the Lower House, but that cathedral chapters should continue to elect one proctor to represent them as heretofore. This proctor should either be the dean or some other member of the chapter, or other duly qualified priest.

Under this scheme the only *ex officio* element would be the archdeacons, a body of men possessing, as the Committee points out, an exceptional knowledge of the clergy and their interests. Thus the representative element would be considerably strengthened, and the Convocations would command increased confidence.

The Committee next proposes to convert the Representative

Church Council into an assembly for the general government of the Church, with "full power to legislate on ecclesiastical affairs, even if this legislation involves the amendment or repeal of existing Acts of Parliament, but subject always to a veto on the part of the Crown, and of Parliament." As at present the Council is to consist of three Houses—Bishops, Clergy, and Laity. The House of Bishops is composed of the members of the Upper Houses of the Convocations of Canterbury and York; the House of Clergy of the members of Lower Houses of those Convocations, chosen on the reformed representative system previously described; and the House of Laymen of representatives chosen by the Diocesan Conferences from amongst their members. The Archbishop of Canterbury, or in his absence the Archbishop of York is to be president of the full Council, and chairman of the House of Bishops, when sitting separately. In the absence of both prelates the Bishop next in precedence may occupy this dual position. The Houses of Clergy and of Laymen are to choose their own chairmen for separate session. The Council is to be summoned in such manner and at such times and places as the Archbishops may determine.

In order to pass the Council every proposal must receive the assent of either a majority of the members of the whole assembly or the assent of each of the three Houses. Questions relating only to the conduct of business will be decided by a majority of the whole Council, but any ten members have the right to claim a vote by separate Houses on other proposals. Failing such a demand, however, the matter is to be decided by a show of hands of the whole body.

The Council is expressly debarred from interfering "with the exercise by the Episcopate of the powers or functions inherent in them," and from issuing "any statement purporting to declare the doctrine of the Church on any question of theology." Subject to these reservations, the Council may discuss questions touching doctrine and discipline. Any projected legislative measure concerning doctrinal formulæ and the services or ceremonies of the Church, or the administration of the Sacraments and sacred rites of the Church must, however, be initiated in the House of Bishops, and discussed by each House sitting separately. The Council must either accept or reject the measure in the terms in which it is finally proposed by the House of Bishops after that House has received and considered the report of the separate discussions.

Alterations or additions to the constitution can only be made by a resolution of the Council passed at a joint meeting of the three Houses by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of each House present, and voting after due notice

given and confirmed after due notice at the next session of the Council held after the expiration of six calendar months.

In presenting these suggestions, the Committee remarks that legislative business, if it is to be efficiently performed, must be transacted either on the principle of successive readings, and progress clause by clause in Committee, or on the principle of reference to specially appointed committees, who would report on the subject and draft a measure for submission to the Council. The latter system is advocated on the ground that the former would entail too large an expenditure of time. Preparation of measures in separate committees would allow of debate in full Council and of amendment by the Council. The procedure recommended seems adequate and workable.

The Committee considers also that it is essential to preserve the right of vote by orders and of separate session. In general the more business transacted in joint sittings of the whole Council the more satisfactory the proceedings are likely to be, but questions may arise which will render separate session desirable, and indeed it should be obligatory to discuss questions touching doctrine and discipline in separate sittings.

I must confess that the proposals relating to separate session and vote by orders appear to me to be unsatisfactory and seriously restrictive. Indeed the general limitations imposed on the legislative activity of the Council seem to require the most careful attention. The Council may not interfere with the exercise of Episcopal powers and functions; it may not issue any statement declaring the doctrine of the Church on any theological question; it may, subject to these reservations, discuss matters of doctrine and discipline, but any legislative measure concerning doctrinal formulæ or the services or ceremonies of the Church, or the administration of the Sacraments and sacred rites of the Church must be initiated in the House of Bishops, and discussed in separate session, whilst the proposal concerned can only be passed in the form finally approved by the House of Bishops. Constitutional amendments require a two-thirds majority of each House, and confirmation at the next session six calendar months later. And then in addition to the extensive powers retained by the Episcopate, any ten members of the Council may demand a vote by orders on *any* legislative project, thus rendering the consent of a majority in each individual House necessary.

What must be the effect of these various limitations? Do they not in the last resort render the House of Bishops master of the Council on every single legislative measure which may be devised? The Church in past eras of her history has had a reactionary Episcopal Bench; she might have such a Bench again in the future. In such an event the House of Bishops

could absolutely stifle all progress. Doctrine remains an Episcopal preserve, and a reactionary Bench would take good care that no revision of theological tenets in accordance with the spirit of the age should occur. Thereby a vast injury would be dealt the Church, as she would be thrown thoroughly out of touch with national belief. But this would not be the full extent of the mischief. With a reactionary Bench in office ten members of Council might always be relied on as forthcoming for enforcing a vote by orders on any progressive non-doctrinal measure, and the fate of the reform would of course be sealed by this means.

The powers retained for the Episcopate are altogether too extensive if a progressive and healthy life is to be assured the Church. In the other great religious hierarchy in these islands—the Established Church of Scotland—there is no vote by orders, and no reservation on doctrinal questions. The General Assembly transacts its business, secular and theological, by a majority of members sitting and voting together as one House. It is, of course, true that under the Constitution of the Assembly the clerical members are in a small majority, whilst under the proposed Constitution of the Representative Church Council the laity have a majority in the Council sitting as one House. It must further be remembered that the vote by orders is inherent in the Church Constitution, and is, in fact, a feature of the Constitutions of the other branches of the Anglican Communion. Thus any variation of the Committee's proposals which may be suggested must, if it is to be sound, be rather more restrictive than the Presbyterian system.

The Committee itself remarks that, subject to the reservation of doctrine, the more business transacted in joint sittings of the whole Council the more satisfactory will be the result. Probably, therefore, a reasonable solution of the difficulty would be that except on theological and constitutional questions the Council should vote as one House. No vote by orders should be allowed on non-doctrinal subjects, save in matters relating to the Constitution. Alterations or additions in this respect should, as the Committee suggests, only be passed after securing a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of each house present and voting after due notice given, but I do not think subsequent confirmation should be necessary. Resolutions or measures affecting doctrine might be introduced in either House, but discussion and voting in separate session of the three Houses should be required. A majority in each House should be necessary for the passage of the measure into law, but both in constitutional and doctrinal questions a safeguard against reactionary obstruction should be provided. If in three suc-

cessive sessions a constitutional amendment were carried by the necessary two-thirds majority in two out of the three Houses, or a measure affecting doctrine were passed by a majority in two out of the three Houses, the opposition of the recalcitrant House should be automatically over-ridden, and the measure passed into law.

Under such a scheme no doctrinal revision could be carried out without the consent either of a majority of the Bishops or of a majority of the clergy, and therefore no usurpation of clerical functions could be made by the laity. But the obstruction of an ecclesiastical minority would thus be overcome. Its veto would be merely suspensive. It appears to me that this amount of freedom must be secured the Council if the progressive life of the Church is to be assured. Under the proposals of the Committee the Council is to be entrusted with the administration and legislation required for the Church, and if the assembly is to perform its functions efficiently it must possess ample freedom. Otherwise its proceedings will necessarily become stagnant, and the vitality of the Church will very seriously suffer in consequence.

Such are the proposals in relation to the Representative Church Council. The Committee anticipates that eventually this new legislative body will bring into disuse the old legislative procedure of the Convocations, but deprivation of the legislative powers of the Convocations is not recommended. It is, in the Committee's opinion, "essentially a question which time alone can settle."

The existence of two sovereign legislative bodies, one acting efficiently, and the other employing old and cumbrous methods, seems an anachronism, and as the Convocations without legislative power would, in the presence of the Representative Church Council, be largely superfluous, the bolder suggestion of the discontinuance of the former assemblies appears the better. Indeed, much can be said for reconstituting the two Convocations into one body, and entrusting to this reformed Convocation the powers suggested for the Representative Church Council. In other words, the General Assembly for the Church would be known as Convocation and not as the Representative Church Council. A continuance of Convocation as a reformed and unified body with full legislative powers would appear more in keeping with the dignity and tradition of Church history than the grant of those powers to a modern assembly, which, speaking comparatively, is without history and without tradition. It seems a mistake to allow an ancient institution which has played a valuable part in ecclesiastical affairs to fall into desuetude, and yet this must be its eventual fate if it exists beside a powerful

assembly, clothed with the legislative and executive authority of the Church. Reform of Convocation in the sense I have indicated, and grant to this body of the powers already described seems the more satisfactory solution of the question. The Church should only possess one General Assembly, and if this is so Convocation has a greater claim than the Representative Church Council.

The legislation passed by the Church Assembly, and confirmed by the State, would of course be binding on Church members. Refusal of allegiance to a secular Church Act passed by the Assembly would obviously and necessarily deprive a man of his membership in the Church, and under certain circumstances might carry penalties enforceable in the civil Courts; whilst by his continued attendance at the parish church a man would obviously assent to doctrinal legislation passed by the Assembly. If he disapproved of any new doctrine his only remedy would be resignation of membership. The binding force of such ecclesiastical legislation would extend to canons passed in future by the Assembly, and these canons would affect both clergy and laity alike, inasmuch as the laity would have had a share in passing them. But the existing canon law could not properly be enforced upon the laity without confirmation first by the new assembly. Thus the committee decides, and the decision appears to me both sound and reasonable.

Such are the proposals for the central government of the Church. It now remains to consider the nature of State control. The Report suggests that an Ecclesiastical Committee of the Privy Council, consisting of twenty-five members, qualified by their learning, or by legal, parliamentary and official attainments and experience, should be established to advise the Crown and Parliament on matters in relation to the Church. Every measure, after being passed by the Church Council, should be presented to this Committee by a Legislative Committee of the Church Council, which should include members of all three Houses of the Council. In submitting the Bill the Legislative Committee would add such explanation of its provisions as might seem necessary, and at any point in its deliberations the Ecclesiastical Committee might invite the members of the Legislative Committee to a conference for further discussion.

The Ecclesiastical Committee would decide whether the measure required submission to Parliament or whether it could be dealt with by the Crown alone as a constitution or canon. After consideration the Committee would draft a report to the King declaring whether the measure ought or ought not to receive the Royal assent, and adding such reasons as might seem desirable. But before final adoption the report should be sub-

mitted to the Legislative Committee for communication to the Church Council. The Legislative Committee might at any time during the deliberations of the Ecclesiastical Committee, whether before or after the submission of the draft report, acting either on its own initiative or by authority of the Church Council, withdraw the measure with a view to further consideration by the Council, and if the Council so desired, should present the Bill to the Ecclesiastical Committee in a new or modified form. But, if the Bill should not be withdrawn, the Ecclesiastical Committee would communicate their report to the King.

If the measure proposed were to be dealt with by a canon the necessary Royal sanction would then either be granted or refused—in accordance with the recommendation of the Ecclesiastical Committee. But if the measure required Parliamentary sanction both the Bill and the report should then be forthwith laid before both Houses of Parliament. The Bill would lie upon the tables of both Houses for forty days. If the report of the Ecclesiastical Committee recommended that the Bill should receive the King's Assent, then, at the end of forty days, the Royal Assent would be granted, unless during that period a resolution should be carried in either House of Parliament directing that assent should not so be given. If, on the other hand, the report should be against the enactment of the Bill, at the end of the forty days the measure would be removed from the Tables of the two Houses, and would not be further proceeded with, unless during that period a resolution should be carried in both Houses directing that the Bill should be submitted for the Royal Assent, when in accordance with the direction of Parliament it would be so submitted. When the Royal Assent had been given to a legislative measure, that measure would acquire the force of an Act of Parliament.

This scheme obviously introduces a new and revolutionary principle into the government of this country—the principle of delegation. Parliament remains the supreme legislative authority, but it delegates certain of its functions to a subordinate legislative assembly, and merely retains the right of veto. The principle is far-reaching, since it is evident that in fairness similar powers must be accorded the various Nonconformist bodies, should they demand them, and indeed the Committee recognises this, and welcomes such a concession. Thus ecclesiastical affairs would be removed from the direct cognisance of Parliament, and would be dealt with in the various assemblies of the different Churches. But the possible ramifications of this principle do not stop here. If the Churches receive Home Rule, may not various secular interests demand a similar concession. May not the Trade Unions, for example, claim legislative powers for a Federated

Assembly? There is, of course, a difference between the two cases, as the Church can legislate solely for her own members, whereas Trade Union legislation would concern all classes in the community, and a purely labour body should not, therefore, exercise such authority. Labour advocates, however, would not be likely to recognise the distinction.

It is well to realise the tendency of these proposals, but on full consideration it appears to me that we must be prepared for a vital change in Parliamentary procedure as we know it to-day. The Parliamentary machine is clogged through excess of business, and a measure of delegation is necessary. In a very limited sense it already exists—i.e. in the powers conferred on certain public companies and authorities to enact bye-laws—whilst for several years past a large grant of delegation has been demanded by the partisans of devolution in local government. Consequently I regard the claim of the Church as not unreasonable, and I consider the same powers should be conferred on the various Nonconformist bodies. Effective ecclesiastical legislation is well-nigh impossible under present conditions, and if a healthy life is to be ensured the Church, this encumbrance must be removed. The scheme presented by the Committee effectually does this. It sets up a competent legislative assembly for ecclesiastical affairs, and guarantees a reasonable control on the part of the State. The powers suggested for the Church Council are sweeping—it may even repeal existing Acts of Parliament—but then the supreme authority of Parliament is preserved by means of the veto. Further, the Council can legislate only on Church affairs; its Acts can only be binding on Church members. National religious questions, as opposed to sectarian questions, would still have to come directly before Parliament—and rightly so. Thus the Church Council could not establish or endow a scheme of religious education, compulsorily supported by all classes of the community. The safeguards against abuse are ample, and the scheme should be accepted as a reasonable solution of a real and intolerable grievance.

It is to the interest of national religion that the Established Church should be a strong and vigorous community, and for this reason large numbers of Nonconformists will welcome the general nature of the proposals in this Report. The reform of the Church of England is in a real sense a national question, and whether a man be Churchman or Nonconformist he is bound to take a deep and sympathetic interest in any proposals to this end. The Committee is to be warmly congratulated on the bold and statesman-like manner in which it has approached this great question, and it is to be hoped that the Report will not suffer the fate of reports in general, but will be acted upon in the coming days of peace.

H. DOUGLAS GREGORY.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S NOTE

THE CASE FOR THE ALLIES

PRESIDENT WILSON'S peace note has taught us a lesson—that the United States as a whole have no appreciation of the meaning of the present European struggle. A part of the American press complains that we have made no attempt to explain the views of Great Britain. In this journal, which appeals to American thought and claims to represent the feeling of the British Empire, it is worth while to set out our case briefly and clearly.

In July 1914 Germany appeared to be one of the most prosperous nations of the world. The industry of her people, guided by the organisation of her rulers, had produced a homogeneous State equipped for the highest industrial development. She had her friends in all lands. The world was open to her. She had every outlet for commerce and every opportunity for the acquisition of further wealth. No one threatened her: she was strong by land and sea; many feared her, most respected her.

But we know now that Germany, in growing rapidly rich, had lost her hold on the essentials—she had become greedy and overbearing. The nation had been taught that the only value of being strong and rich was to enable the strong State to dominate her neighbours. Her commerce and her diplomacy were organised to that end. So an opportunity to enforce her ambition had to be made. In time of profound peace Germany decided on the monstrous crime of making war, and making it for purely selfish and unworthy motives.

Her main object at the moment may be stated in the words of one of her writers: it was "to bleed France white." This purpose was doubtless combined with others, and it was concealed* by diplomatic suggestions: but it remained the one main motive of war.

The British Blue Books contain † the amplest proof that the

* 'Great Britain and the European Crisis.' London, 1914, *passim*.

† *Ibid*.

Imperial German Government refused every suggestion for a peaceful solution of these difficulties. They have since been shown to have created them for the very purpose of their own aggression. And they commenced operations by tearing up their own guarantee of Belgian neutrality.

When Belgium refused to be a party to the invasion of France, Germany made her the victim of her chagrin and vengeance. She was not content with merely attacking this friendly and inoffensive State, but backed by the handicap of her formidable preparations she violated every law of warfare, every dictate of humanity, every sense of morality.

There is no need to produce a more serious indictment than this; but inasmuch as her victims have been unable for more than two years to override the advantages given by long premeditation of crime, opportunity has been given to Germany to multiply the enormities of her warfare; and to the initial barbarities are added a long list of inhuman acts. It will suffice to mention—the devastation of Serbia and Poland; the massacre of the Armenians; the sinking of the *Lusitania* and other unarmed vessels contrary to international law; the inauguration of systematic piracy contrary to every precept of the law of nations; the bombing of open towns without any attempt at military justification; the murder of brave men and women under cover of legal forms. Such a series of crimes stamps their chief author as an irreclaimable outcast.

Even if Great Britain had neglected her plain duty to Belgium, it would have been impossible for a self-respecting nation to have stood aloof from France and Russia when their full peril declared itself. The Allies have had nothing to gain by war. They were manifestly unprepared for Germany's attack. The burden thrown upon them during the past two years has been crushing beyond conception. Yet the duty to humanity is clear as daylight. The triumph of Germany would mean the downfall of human development.

The objects of the Allies have been, and may be, stated in different terms, but they all are reducible to this—that Germany has sinned against humanity and that the allies are acting as the police force of the world—to exact justice and restore the wronged. In such circumstances there can be no peace without adequate reparation and proper guarantees for the future. There is no desire to crush Germany for ever. It is the part of modern criminology to remove the criminal instinct rather than destroy the offender. But punishment is a necessary preliminary to reform, and punishment must often be severe.

Of course penitence may anticipate punishment, and if Germany offered full reparation and gave complete guarantees at

the bidding of the Allies she might escape the harder part of her punishment. She has hitherto, however, shown no inclination to take that course. The first essential of peace is complete reparation, going back to the crimes of more than fifty years ago. It is impossible to conceive of any reparation which does not include the complete reinstatement of Belgium, Luxembourg, Serbia, Montenegro, Poland and Rumania, and the repair of all damages by German money and labour. But this is not enough. It has been shown in the past two years how the seizure of Alsace and Lorraine was an act of premeditated robbery, and the seizure of Schleswig in 1864 was even at that time branded as an unholy act. These wrongs should be righted.

Reparation to the allied and neutral nations for wanton destruction of ships and cargo is the next essential condition of peace—and this includes not only the delivery of the tonnage, but also indemnity for the many lives ruthlessly destroyed. Let it not be forgotten that these acts are all contrary to international law. The sinking of a prize is only justified in law as an occasional act under great stress of circumstances. The mere destruction of property is a serious matter not easily justified. The wholesale sacrifice of life and property without any justification on military grounds is a crime which humanity has usually visited with the death penalty.

The question of guarantees is more difficult than that of reparation. Since 31 July, 1914, it has become impossible to accept any written guarantee from Germany.* When she has torn up the one safeguard of European peace, what hope is there of her respecting a fresh one? It is in devising a sufficient safeguard without irritating the national sense or offending the eternal conception of justice that the great crux of peace terms will lie.

But it is not the purpose of this statement to do more than indicate certain minima which peace terms must include. The justification of the demand just outlined is to be found in the solid determination of the whole British Empire to stand between the oppressor and his victims, until at last justice triumphs. And strong behind the United Kingdom is the will of the great self-governing Dominions, who will see to it that no false spirit of generosity, no sickly sentimentality, shall at the last betray the cause of freedom for which they, and France, Russia, Italy, have bled.

One may sum up the matter in a paragraph:—

Germany has failed as a human agency. Both in Europe and her Colonies she had opportunities for good which she has deliberately thrown away. Her recent crimes go before her unto

* 'Great Britain and the European Crisis.' Preface, p. viii.

judgment. There is no hope for the peace of the world unless that judgment is effective. If Germany now offered reparation and guarantees she could have the peace which she desires. Short of that it is an insult to justice and common sense that she should suggest peace, or that any well-intentioned mediator should seek to place Germany and the Allies on an equal footing. Scratch out the word "war" and use only the words "crime" and "police." The real situation will then be clearer.

NEMESIS.

QUEENBOROUGH: THE FREE PORT

A UNIQUE SITUATION

IN selecting a site for a modern factory two very necessary essentials are close proximity to a port and cheap and easy communication with your coal supply. Where these facilities exist landowners have little, if any, difficulty in securing tenants, although not in every case are they willing to part with the freehold of their property. It often happens, too, that port dues are heavy and railway freights high, two matters which seriously affect profits. In both these respects Queenborough is highly favoured. Not only is the port free of all dues, but this freedom is confirmed by Royal Charter of ancient origin. Moreover, and this is all-important, cargoes arriving at the Port of London, if consigned to Queenborough and discharged over the ship's side into barges or lighters, are allowed free entry into Queenborough.

As regards the second essential Queenborough adjoins the rapidly developing Kent Coal Fields, thus affording to manufacturers the opportunity of getting their coal at pit-mouth prices. It also has the advantage of being the nearest shipping port in this country to Flushing and the continent. Then again there are no tenancies, the freehold of the land passing with the sale in every case. Already several large and lucrative undertakings have made their home in the vicinity, and in pre-war days a considerable business with the outer world was done, business that, when the war is over, is likely to increase many-fold. Looking to the future and to the incoming of tariffs, Queenborough therefore would seem to be an ideal spot for the neutral manufacturer, and it may be assumed that our American cousins will become keen competitors for these valuable sites so that they may be in a position to participate to the full in the trade boom which is certain to follow the conclusion of peace.

EMPIRE TRADE NOTES

CANADA

IN view of the efforts that are likely to be made in this country and elsewhere after the war to assist settlement on the land, the proposed Rural Credit Scheme of the Manitoba Legislature is of interest. This legislation has been drafted by a committee of the Government, and if approved of by the farmers' organisations throughout the province, will be brought before the legislature in the next session. Details of the scheme have not yet been made public, but it is believed that the three prairie provinces will all follow the same lines. Co-operative liability, it is stated, will not be a feature of the new bill, which provides interest for loans on the individual credit of the farmers concerned, though the municipalities will carry a measure of the responsibility of possible losses. The loans, it is proposed, will be on long terms, say 30 years, and will bear interest at from 5 to 6 per cent. per annum. Private enterprise will be rigorously excluded from the field, the only parties to the loans being the Government, which will issue bonds for the required capital, the municipalities, which will supervise the borrowings, and the farmers who borrow. Credits will be allowed on mortgages only. It is understood that loans will be made up to 50 per cent. of the value of the mortgaged property.

THE total marketed value of fish, fish products, and marine animals taken by Canadian fishermen from the sea and inland lakes and rivers in 1916 was valued at \$35,860,708, an increase over 1915 of \$4,596,077, of which increase \$152,421 was from Quebec. Salmon heads the total catch with a value of \$11,262,381; then come lobsters, \$4,506,155; cod, \$4,489,496; herring, \$2,906,887; and halibut, \$2,261,776; while haddock, sardines, and the famous whitefish from inland waters each yield over \$1,000,000. Of the fish exported in the year, the United Kingdom took 352,251 cwt. of canned salmon, 14,960 cwt. of fresh salmon, and 16,277 cwt. of fresh halibut, 33,716 cwt. of dry cod, and 3,662,148 lbs. of canned lobster.

IN Ontario during the last month the Work Department of the Soldiers' Aid Commission has found employment for 142 soldiers discharged from Military Service as medically unfit, and during the same period an additional 127 men have returned to the Province from overseas

service. A very satisfactory beginning has been made with the Educational Classes for returned soldiers at Toronto. The number asking for instruction in the preparatory course, which includes a sound schooling in the elementary branches, promises to be large. A course in Office Practice and General Commercial Education is also being arranged, while several other useful courses are projected and will be started as soon as the demand is sufficient and instructors are available.

ONTARIO'S Insurance Report shows that there are now 162 companies licensed by the Dominion and registered to transact business in the Province. Of these, 81 are transacting fire insurance, 47 life insurance and 34 accident, sickness, automobile, etc. There are 22 companies registered for the transaction of ocean and inland marine insurance and two companies registered for the investment of surplus funds in Ontario.

At a meeting of the Imperial Home Reunion Association at Winnipeg, the financial report presented for the ten months ended October 31st, showed that the Association had financed transportation from Great Britain to Winnipeg for 2,834 wives and children, at a cost of nearly £21,000. The outstanding feature of the operations of this great and important work of reuniting British-born families in established homes in Winnipeg, as emphasised in the president's statement, is that there has been no necessity to ask the guarantors of the fund for any assistance since the Reunion Association was formed five years ago. Nearly one hundred men and their sons of military age, who had received assistance from the Association had joined the colours. In every case where the head of the family had died, the balance owing to the Association at the time had been written off and a receipt in full sent to the wife.

THE Canadian Trade Commissioner at Petrograd states that in any readjustment of the Russian tariff in favour of the allied countries, a reduction in the duties on canned salmon would be a matter of great importance to Canada, in view of the potentialities of the Russian market for this article if it can be brought within the reach of the masses. The Russian people are great fish users, and as one of the results of the war has been to reduce the meat supplies of Russia to a point from which it will take years to recover, it is believed that the city population, on account of the high price of meat, will turn more than ever to a fish diet. The canneries on the Pacific coast greatly desire a market for "pink" salmon, which can be caught in large quantities. It is believed that, provided the salmon could be placed on the market at a popular price, an enormous trade could be developed. If a modification of the existing heavy duty can be secured, the outlet for the Canadian salmon industry would be encouraging.

WATER power has been a most important factor in the industrial development of Canada, and with the advances in electrical science will play an even more important rôle in the future. Probably no country in the world possesses such enormous water powers. Practically every industrial centre from coast to coast has abundance of water power available, not only for present needs, but for all anticipated requirements.

Indeed, the fortunate situation of Canada's water powers is the outstanding feature of her resources. Excluding the North-west Territories, practically all the Yukon, and the northern and eastern portions of Quebec, it is estimated that 17,746,000 horse power is available, this amount being inclusive, in the case of Niagara Falls, Fort Frances and the St. Mary's River at Sault Ste Marie, of only the development permitted by international treaties; and, further, does not contemplate the full possibilities of storage for the improvement of present capacities.

The developed powers, which are inclusive of all water powers, whether for electrical production, pulp grinders, or the great many other uses, aggregate only 1,712,193 horse power. Nearly all this power has been created within the last twenty years, and the last decade has seen practically two-thirds of the total produced. With water power as a fundamental necessity in the industrial future, the regulation and conservation of the river waters is to-day being demanded on a large scale, and this will become more insistent as time goes on. In Canada, the titles to the water power rights have largely remained under the control of the Dominion and Provincial Governments. The Dominion Government controls navigable streams and their water powers, and the water powers in general of the Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. The administration of all water powers in British Columbia, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia is under provincial control.

CANADA has had a Trade Commission in Italy during the past few months investigating possible openings for Canadian products in the Italian markets. The report of the Commission has not yet been made public, but the Commissioners were well received and gathered a great deal of information which will shortly be placed at the disposal of Canadian manufacturers. There should be good openings for such products of the Dominion as paper, pulp, iron, steel and flour, and with direct shipping facilities the trade should be a profitable one.

SOUTH AFRICA

SOUTH AFRICAN trade shows month by month a tendency to increase. Balancing the returns for the first eight months of the current year against the corresponding period of 1915, we find that the value of imports increased by five and a half million sterling, or 25 per cent., whilst the exports, exclusive of gold, which are not shown during the period of the war, increased by over four million, or approximately 28 per cent. The increase in exports is mainly due to the restart of the diamond industry which practically closed down when the war broke out. It is also due to some extent to the enhanced value of wool, for whilst 98,000,000 lbs. of wool were exported in the first eight months of 1916 with a declared export value of over £4,000,000, 121,000,000 lbs. were exported in the first eight months of 1915, the export value of which was only a little over three and a half million sterling. Amongst notable increases maize may be instanced, over 280,000,000 lbs. of the value of

£688,487 having been exported in 1916, as against 111,250,000 lbs. in 1915 of a declared value of £264,262. The total value of hides and skins exported is approximately £300,000 more than in 1915, whilst amongst the smaller items it is noticed that almost 700,000 lbs. of soap has been exported, as against 185,000 lbs. during the corresponding period of 1915.

THE remarkable range of products which the Union of South Africa is capable of producing has recently been illustrated by the shipment of such diverse articles as meat, oats, leather, eggs, fruit, wattle bark, maize, cotton, wool, hides and skins, raisins, seal skins, ostrich feathers and drugs. A consignment of several tons of liquorice root is now awaiting shipment at Mossel Bay, whilst arrowroot, ginger and chicory are also being more or less grown in the country. Upwards of 120,000 tons of sugar are expected to be produced in Natal during the coming season, and quite a fair quantity of tea has for years been grown in the same Colony.

WITH the extension of the system of egg circles and the consequent co-ordination of the industry, the production of eggs is growing so fast that it is anticipated in a few years South Africa will have an export trade in this commodity of no mean dimensions. In 1913 the Union exported £8,500 worth of eggs; in 1914, £11,220 worth; and in 1915, £20,800 worth. These figures serve to show the progress which the Union is making; and that progress is still more strikingly indicated when the figures are studied in conjunction with the imports of eggs into the Union over the same period. In 1913 eggs to the value of £77,560 were imported; in 1914 the import value was £59,314, and in 1915, £19,233.

THE recent expansion of the Union's coal industry, in spite of increased railway rates, is noteworthy. During September 895,014 tons of coal were mined, valued at £245,845. This constitutes a record, and represents an increase in value of £4,700 over the August output. A new export trade in coal has sprung up as a result of war conditions, which have sent many vessels to South African ports for bunker and cargo coal hitherto sought elsewhere. As a result South African coal has reached markets whither it had never penetrated. If this temporary advantage be followed up, a thriving export trade on permanent lines should be established. The export of maize from the Union during the month of September totalled 135,056 bags. In addition 47,677 bags were shipped from Lourenço Marques.

THE Company which has been formed in Natal for the purpose of dealing with the export of meat from that Province is to be known as "The Farmers' Co-operative Meat Industries, Limited." The capital is to be £20,000, in shares of £10 each. The Articles of Association will provide *inter alia*, that dividends be limited to 10 per cent. per annum, all profits over and above, after providing for depreciation, to be divided as a bonus among the suppliers. It is proposed also to establish tanning and canning works, as well as the manufacture of fertilisers from the waste products.

A HAPPY NEW YEAR

THE New Year arose from the trenches and the snows,
And cried—"By the Old Year, dead in his repose!
The world shall not ever wheel from day to day of woes;
My year is a new New Year."

And the New Year she smiled, and her proud head tossed,—
"The weeks will come with spring, when the weeks are gone
with frost;
The seed sown in the dead year was sown, and is not lost:
You shall harvest in the ripe New Year.

"Take courage, ye of little faith! and look across the plain,
Where the foe's greatest army is the army of the slain:
They fought you fiercely, bravely—they will not fight again
In the New Year, or any New Year.

"Ye were anxious in the Old Year; the Old Year was long;
The enemy had courage, and the enemy was strong:
But I see adown the months—and bid you learn my song,
'Victory!' in the new New Year.

"Dying with the Old Year I saw the new dread,
Lest a newly-savage nation of the old world be head:
From Principalities and Powers she burns away instead;
Right is might in the new New Year."

GEORGE BIDDER.

ABOUT HERBS

HOW TO GROW THEM

MISS TEETGEN is to be congratulated on having produced a most interesting and instructive book. Herb growing has too long been neglected in this country, with the result that we have had to depend for our supply mainly on Germany and Austria. With the outbreak of war an attempt was made to introduce the cultivation of herbs in Great Britain, but it was soon found that the information concerning this branch of horticulture and medical botany was scattered and not always reliable. To remedy this condition of things the authoress has striven hard and successfully, and as Mr. Holmes, in his excellent preface, very correctly points out she has dealt with the stores of folklore, old herbals and modern departmental publications in a manner that cannot fail to render the little volume welcome to all who take a real interest in the subject. It is at once a book of reference and a guide to knowledge, and should be widely read and studied. The title given to her work by Miss Teetgen is 'Profitable Herb Growing and Collecting,' and it is published at the modest sum of three shillings and sixpence by *Country Life*, Tavistock Street, W.C.

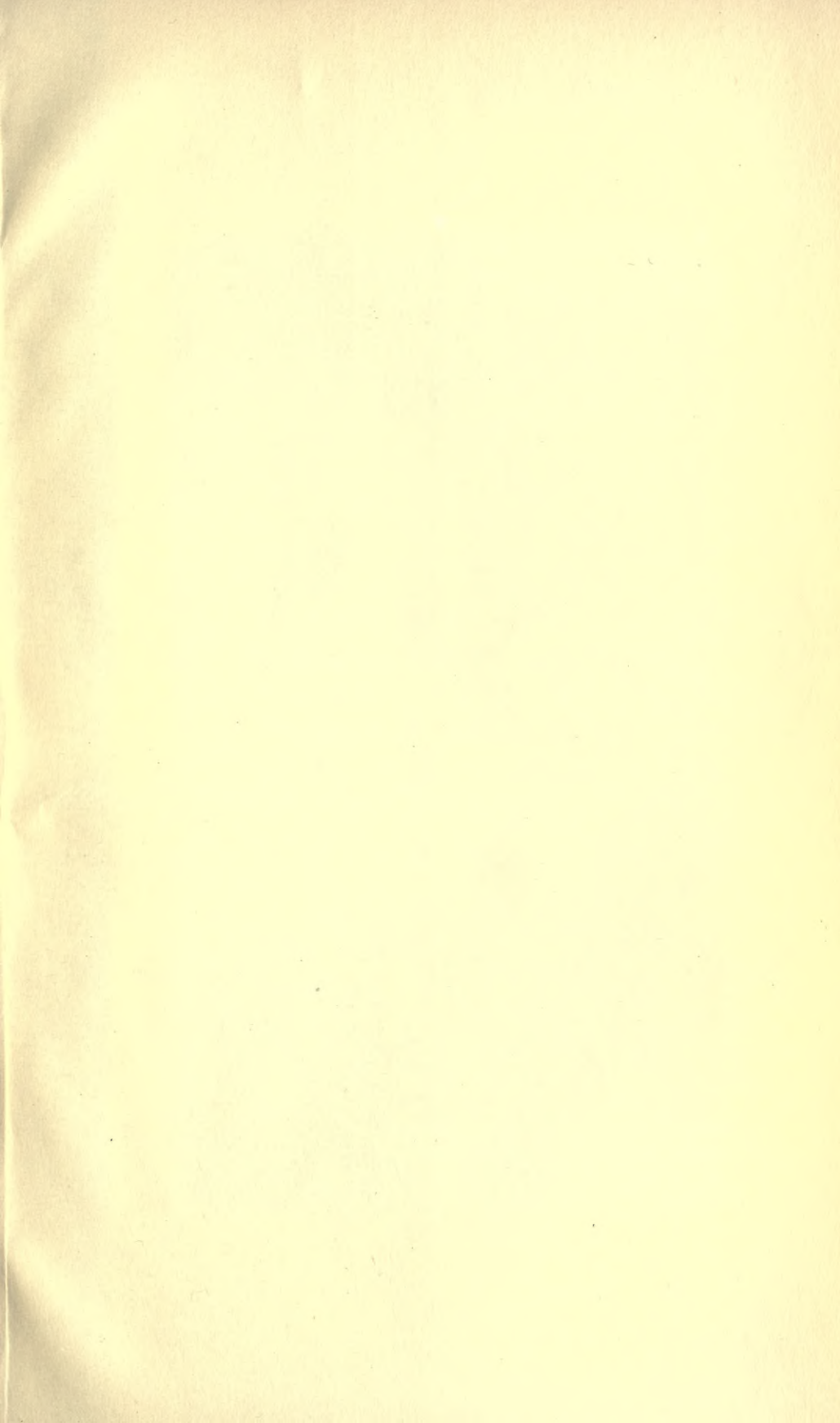
THE EAGLE AND THE BRITISH DOMINIONS

AN INSURANCE AMALGAMATION

A PROVISIONAL agreement for amalgamation has been entered into between the Eagle Life Office and The British Dominions General Insurance Company. Established under a deed of settlements in the year 1807, the "Eagle" was incorporated under the Companies Acts, with unlimited liability in 1897. The combined subscribed capital of the two undertakings will be £2,453,689, with funds exceeding £3,700,000, and a premium income exceeding £1,750,000. The "Eagle" has for many years confined itself to the Life business, whilst the "British Dominions" has undertaken practically every class of business with the exception of Life, and for this it recently took powers to transact. The union, therefore, is a particularly happy one.

On the other hand, the Eagle Company, with its historical associations from an insurance point of view and its sound position, should receive, by means of the amalgamation, just that renewal of energy and adaptation of modern methods as will enable its business once more to become progressive. Some idea may be formed of the "Eagle's" connection when it is recalled that in 1826 it absorbed the United Empire, established in 1824; in 1827 the Protecta (No. 1), established also in 1824; in 1847 the Mariners and General, established in 1843; in 1855 the Mentor (No. 2), established in 1848, and the City of London, established in 1845; in 1856 the Palladium, established in 1824; in 1858 the Indisputable (No. 1), established in 1848; in 1858 the Albion (No. 1), established in 1805; in 1866 the Solicitors and General, established in 1845. The progress of the "British Dominions," under the resourceful and enterprising ability of its Managing Director, Mr. E. M. Mountain, offers abundant evidence of the vigour of its efforts, and a connection of wide dimensions has been established which provides a valuable field for Life business.





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